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On the Relation of Education to the Individual, to Society, and to the State.

[A lecture delivered before the State Teachers' Association at Sparta, Wis , July 8, 1873, by WM. T. HARRIS, Supt. of Schools, St. Louis.]

Into this "great central plain," watered by majestic rivers, and fertile as the historic valley of the Nile, now are pouring all nationalities of the world. All sections of the republic find here their centre. From the northern and southern and middle sections of the Atlantic Slope, nay, from the west, the Pacific shore, and from far off Asia, come immigrants hither. While scarcely one generation of white men has had time to reproduce itself in these states, it has become a populous region with metropolitan cities in many favorable localities. A motley composition is here collecting, out of which to fuse the future people of this valley. The European is here in large numbers, representing all shades of political freedom and despotism at home; the German, the Frenchman, the Italian, the Norwegian, the Irishman, the Briton. The white man, the negro and the "heathen Chinee," even, all exist, and will exist in one community. But how? Out of the dim future looms up the spectral question which it is our province here and now to answer. This generation has to construct the forms in which the community of the future must live. Pioneers on these prairies, and in the pathless wilderness, this generation "blazes" the trees and stakes the plain in order that its tracks may follow the beaten path, and not prove in vain. In what form shall our community, composed of such heterogeneous elements, live?

While this question startles us by its practical importance, we have on the other hand some consolatory reflections. That a composite population tends more to the development of civil liberty than does a homogeneous one, has been remarked in all history. It was only after the fusion of the Cymric Celt first with the Saxon and Dane, and then with the Norman, that the Magna Charta became possible and necessary. The new fusion made on the shores of this continent has led to new and newer political experiments, always tending in the direction of the largest personal liberty. Where people of repugnant manners and customs mingle, the necessity of living in mutual harmony and co-operation cultivates a habit of toleration; each one learns to distinguish between what is merely harmless idiosyncrasy and what belongs to the essential conditions of humanity and civilization. Thus there is perforce a profounder mode of thinking cultivated —"a faculty of seeing identity under differences"—of recognizing personal

virtues under strange exteriors. This is undoubtedly the spirit that will prevail in all future civilization; for the telegraph and railroad communication—intellectual and material commerce all over the world—bring, and are so bringing, into juxtaposition, all mankind, that each one lives, as it were, on the border-land, and shakes hands with the people across his frontier. Everywhere a new synthesis of national characters is going on. Meanness and narrowness cannot withstand such influences. Meanwhile, the new product which arises from the mingling of elements is more concrete—richer in what it contains. Each nationality has learned something essential from the other; the unessentials have been put to the trial under new circumstances, and have gradually fallen away.

Each nationality, each peculiar sectional trait is clashed against the other, and the idiosyncracies perish; the rough angles are worn off; the noble traits of character will survive, for they have the most vitality. Thus our valley shall be the habitation of the cosmopolitan type of American character. The East produces the elements of opposition; it is for the West to unite them in the deeper unity. While local interests develop intense partisan views of narrow prejudices all along our Atlantic coast, and in the monarchies of the old world, we who live here must build our community on a basis of toleration so large that all may find refuge in it. It is toleration only that takes out the sting of bitterness from people brought up under a narrow and bigoted system. Respect your neighbor, and he is likely to respect you. Vigorously defend your enemy's right to private judgment—this is toleration.

But toleration and license are two very different things. The right of private judgment is sacred, and to be respected; the right or license to *act* as one pleases is a different thing. The right of action can never be free, unless it is moulded in the forms of justice and right. "Do right and fear not; do wrong and fear everybody." Toleration must go so far as to allow to each man his private judgment, even if it is a wrong one; but a toleration which should allow every one *to do* what he pleased, whether right or wrong, would prove self-destructive at once. Man's thought belongs to himself; his deed belongs to all. This insight lies at the basis of sound ideas on the subject of free government. It leads me directly to the consideration of my special theme on this occasion.

The function of education in its relation to the government, to society and to the individual.—Freedom has two sides—one of absolute toleration, which permits and encourages difference of opinion, and trusts that the freest exercise of thought is the healthiest, and will lead in the surest way to absolute truth wherein all conviction shall be united as one. The other side is that of subordination to law, wherein each man squares his *deeds* by the universal rules laid down in the statute books, and prescribed by the judicial function of the government, wherein not only each man squares his own deeds by the laws of the land, but at the same time insists upon it that each and every other man shall square his deeds by the same form. Since freedom has these two sides of toleration and proscription, it behooves us to consider its methods of realization. How is freedom rendered possible for the individual in the community? This is an important question at any time, especially important now, for this is an age of reconstruction. We are assembled at a memorable epoch. In view of the future of this country, the present is a season of youth, and before it opens a career full of active endeavor and checkered with manifold experience.

The Necessity of Education.—In times of reconstruction it is highly appropriate to review the whole theory of education, from its first premises down. The necessity of education; what should be its extent; what should be its methods;

what its appliances and the spirit that should govern its discipline and instruction; these are the fertile topics that suggest themselves for study in the treatment of our theme.

Education is a necessity, for the reason that man is not made by nature, but has to make himself out of his circumstances. As a mere savage, or as he comes from the hand of nature, man distinguishes himself from animals by being naked, and hungry and miserable. His old age is a burden and full of suffering; but the animal lives in unconscious harmony with his physical laws, and his clothing and shelter grow out in his furry hide, or gape for him in the cave or hollow tree, while his food falls from the boughs plump into his expectant mouth.

Should any one look upon man as a mere animal, he would scorn the idea that he was born to use all nature and enjoy it, and be prone to consider the omniverous hog rather as having a much better title. Nevertheless it is true that nature sums up all her perfections in man, and even transcends herself so that in him she becomes a subject and a person with self-consciousness and immortality; by this man begins the order of Spirit and rules Nature.

His very deficiences, as mere animal, are the occasion of his greatness. His lack of natural clothing furnishes him the occasion for searching the globe and robbing animal and plant to supply his wardrobe. He even strips from the poor worm its winding-sheet of silk, and gives it the gaudy color, stolen, likewise, from the insect kingdom. For food he draws on all climes and on all departments—animal, mineral and vegetable.

Just as the vegetable kingdom shows its higher and more concrete stage of existence by presupposing the mineral kingdom upon which it rests, and as the animal presupposes both the mineral and vegetable to support its life, so man crowns all by presupposing the whole of nature as his storehouse and larder.

Yet it is not man the savage who can claim so much. The world was made for man only on condition that he have the intelligence and skill to use it. The natural man who has not ascended above nature, and become its master, is, as before said, more unfortunate and unhappy than the brute. But it is this very unhappiness that stimulates him to aspire. He is ignorant, and yet he has not the brute's instinct to lead him. What can he do but err and break the laws of nature until he discovers one by one their existence and conditions. As a western poet describes it, he

> "Uses his head as a battering ram
> Against the walls of the universe."

But he comes out of this sore experience not only with a new bump on the outside of his head, but also with a new idea inside; he has learned a distinction between what is good for him and what is not. He has learned a limit to his being; he has learned a law. This is the process by which he becomes conscious of himself, by which he learns his own nature and the nature of the universe.

To achieve his destiny, to become aught that is distinctively human, he must be able to combine with his fellow man, and to sum up the results of the race in each individual. First, there is practical combination, civil society organizing in such a way that each man reaps the united effort of the entire community; the laborer, who earns his dollar for the day's work, being able to purchase therewith one dollar's worth of any or all the productions that human labor has wrought out. Then there is theoretical combination, the scholar by diligent study and thought being able to master for himself one by one the great thoughts that have ruled the world-history. There is a third combination, that of the individual with himself, wherein man, by concentrating his energies for a long period, achieves a gigantic result, the product of his whole life directed to one focus.

These forms of combination are the

institutions of civilization, and they form collectively a new world above and beyond the natural world, and in this new world man lives and moves and has his being as a spiritual existence. This new world of institutions which civilized man inhabits, is far more substantial than the world of nature, which alone exists for the savage.

Each individual of the human race has an experience of his own, and since man has first a tongue and then a pen, he communicates his experience to others, and thus a common fund of intelligence is established, which has been called the "*fifth element*." As earth, air, fire, and water, are good in their way as the *four* elements, so this new element, the element of realized intelligence—is essential to man, and the best of all.

It is not necessary for each member of the human race to repeat the experience of his predecessors, for their results have descended to him, and he has acquired them by education, and hence he may stand on the top of the ladder of human culture and build a new round to it, so that his children may climb higher and do the like.

But the animal does not amass experience, and hence does not progress. We never heard a parrot (i. e. one of the feathered kind) setting up a school for the instruction of green ones, nor of an old elephant's starting out on a lecturing tour. But strictly confined to the dreamy life of the senses, and never rising to a general idea, the individual animal matures and dies. Only the species lives on; there is no immortality for the individual animal. It requires a being who can combine in himself the product of his entire species by his individual activity—just as man can—to fulfill the conditions of immortality. He must be able to say, like the Microcosm:

> "I drained the drops of every cup,
> Arts, institutions, I drank up;
> Athirst, I quaffed life's flowing bowls,
> And sipped the flavors of all souls."

If we look at the character of man's progress, we shall find it to consist in subordinating the material world, and thereby freeing himself from the hard limits that hem in the lower orders. Man's destiny is to realize in himself the directive power over nature—to make it pliant to his will. This supremacy he attains by means of tools.

Carlyle, in his "Sartor Resartus," defines man to be the "tool-using animal." He can turn nature against itself, and devote it to use; he can reduce the processes of nature to means for the achievement of his purposes; and he is able not only to use the material world, but he can utilize his own experience. Thus it happens that in his warehouse are found two kinds of tools—we may call them practical and theoretical tools. With these tools he subdues all opposition, and, like the great magicians of old, he lays his spells on time and space, and they serve at his bidding. Animal, mineral, plant, the four elements, all acknowledge his dominion. By his practical tools, such as the ax, the plow, the wagon, or the horse, the ship, the steam engine—he achieves the victory of art. By his theoretical tools—such as language, mathematics, the sciences and philosophy—he reduces the world to transparent forms, and achieves thereby the victory of ideas. Give to man the theoretical tools—the tools of thought—and he will immediately invent the tools of art, and conquer matter and force.

Thus man owes his superiority to the command of instrumentalities. These instrumentalities are the combined product of the activity of the race. These combinations which we have spoken of as producing the *fifth element*—that of *realized intelligence*—are the four cardinal institutions: The Family, Civil Society, The State, Religion. These are the institutions in which alone can be realized the substantial freedom of man. They form a vast, complex organism of conventionalities and usages—the growth of all the ages. Taking the practical side

of combination into view for a moment, what a perfect instrument has been formed by society and the state to realize the distribution of the products of labor. Take the machinery of exchange known as *money*. Diversity of employment, and consequently skilled labor, depends upon facility of exchange. Says a distinguished writer on political economy: "By means of money, the farmer, the miller, the clothier, the butcher, the merchant, the grocer, the newsdealer, and all other members of society, are enabled to effect exchanges, even to the extent of purchasing, in a postal card, for a single cent, their share of the labors of thousands and ten thousands of men employed in making railroads, engines and cars, and transporting upon them, annually, hundreds of millions of letters; or for another cent they may purchase their share of the labor of the hundreds, if not thousands, of men who have, in various manners, contributed to the production of a penny newspaper. What an immense combination has to be made before a single copy of the newspaper can be produced! There are the coal, iron ore and lead miners, furnace-men, machine-makers, rag-gatherers, casters, bleachers, makers of bleaching powders, paper-makers, railroad and canal men, type-makers, compositors, pressmen, authors, editors, publishers, newsboys, and a host of others, all combining their efforts for the production in market of a heap of newspapers that has, on the instant of production, to be divided off into portions suited to the wants of thousands of customers. Each of the latter pays a single cent, and then, perhaps, shares his paper with a dozen others, so that the cost to each reader is, perhaps, no more than one cent per week; and yet each obtains his share of the labors of each and all of the persons by whom it was produced.

"Of all the phenomena of society, this process of division, subdivision, composition and recomposition, is most remarkable; and yet—being a thing of such common occurrence—it scarcely attracts the slightest notice. Were the newspaper above referred to partitioned off into squares, each of which should represent its portion of the labor of one of the persons who had contributed to the work, it would be found to be resolved into six, eight, or perhaps ten thousand pieces, of various sizes, small and great—the former representing the men who had mined and smelted the lead and iron ores of which the types and presses had been composed, and the latter representing the men and boys by whom the distribution had been made. Numerous as are these little scraps of human effort, they are, nevertheless, all combined in every single sheet, and every member of the community may, for the trivial sum of fifty cents per annum, enjoy the advantage of the information therein contained, and as fully as he could do had it been collected for himself alone."

This example, which Mr. Carey has furnished us, illustrates some of the effects of the machinery of combination. Each works for all, and all for each. Every vessel that crosses the ocean, and every laborer on the distant plantation in Cuba or Brazil, or even by the far-off Nile or Ganges, every manufacturer in Birmingham or Manchester, affects the well-being of the coal miner or wheat grower in Illinois or Wisconsin. He is comforted and cheered by the tea and coffee, nourished and sustained by the fruits, grains and spices, the cotton and silk and linen, that have traveled to him from round the earth. Nay, the very drugs that make life possible in a malarious climate are grown from six to twelve thousand miles hence. The relation is reciprocal; and every stroke which the Illinois coal miner strikes with his pick-ax affects the price of coal in all the markets of the world, and the price of coal affects the price of all other commodities.

Now what we attempt to give in the school is not a direct initiation into this realm of practical combination, but, on

the contrary, we aim to initiate the people into the "conventionalities of intelligence"—the means of theoretical combination. The study of reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and grammar, shall open the doors to the spiritual empire over nature.

It is the province of the school to elevate the pupils into clear insight, so that they may discern a practical solution to the problem of life in the shape it assumes now. Without this insight the young American gropes dimly, gradually learning, through long years of bitter experience, that in resisting law he resists himself; that in seeking independence through pure self-will and caprice, he comes to abject slavery; that the true freedom is to be obtained only through subordination of self.

This brings us to the third point of consideration — the influence of the state upon the function of education.

In a state which rests upon the patriarchal form of government, like China, the duties of children to parents, of the younger to the elder, of subjects to the emperor, constitute the staple of education. To learn subordination to the elder or higher in rank is to learn the lesson of life. More or less, under all governments in the old world, this subordination of man to some accident of history, to some element of time and space, is and must be a part of education. Something alien to his true freedom must remain and he cannot dissolve it. In India, education consists in learning the ceremonies and observances peculiar to one's caste. For in that country everything depends upon what caste one belongs to. In Athens æsthetic culture was prized above all; in Sparta, martial training; in Rome, to sacrifice one's self for the glory of the state.

All modern states are founded on a broader basis than any of these; they are mostly based on the Christian idea, and as they approach the ideal of man as taught in that religion, we find their educational systems becoming more cosmopolitan, more potent in reaching the individual, and more certain in their effect upon his enlightenment.

To inquire what is the province we attempt to occupy with popular education in America, and what are its bearings upon the previous epochs of history, becomes a question of great interest. The separation of church and state, a cardinal principle in this nation, has wrought manifold changes. The countries of Europe are in all stages of progress in this respect. Wherever, as in England until quite recently, the principle is not acknowledged, the cause of popular education does not flourish. In 1850 an American said, with great force: "The parliament that voted £100,000 of the nation's money for the queen's horses and hounds, had but £30,000 to spare for the education of her people. While Oxford and Cambridge shine with wealth and splendor, and the nobility and gentry are educated in all that goes to make the masterly scholar and the finished gentleman, no honor attends the educators of the people; no wealth is heaped up for them; no beautiful buildings erected for their use; no great libraries got ready at public charge." "In Rome and England great sums have been given by wealthy men, and by the state itself, to furnish the means of a theocratic or aristocratic education of a certain class, to produce the national priests and the national gentlemen." The result is obvious; the parish records of England tell us that one-third of the couples joined in marriage are unable to sign their names to the marriage contract. (The new system of popular education, lately inaugurated there, will change all that within a generation.) The same condition exists in France. The reports of 1863 tell us that out of every one hundred men, twenty-eight could not sign the marriage contract, and forty-three out of every one hundred women were completely illiterate. When the state is not founded on a

democratic idea—a government for all the people and by all the people—education cannot be universal. Such education in England, or France, or Italy, would overturn, in one generation, all the class privileges that lie at the basis of their governments. Only when the state is founded upon the distinct and explicit recognition of the inherent rights of all men to partake in the highest functions of their race, can education be permitted in its normal scope.

Our own form of government professes to rest on this foundation. It is its self-proclaimed object to secure to every man his right to govern himself. Every man shall reap the fruit of his own deed. The state decrees that the individual shall have as much justice meted out to him as be is able to mete to himself. An American shall not be treated like an infant, and have good laws without making them. He shall make his own laws, and if they are not good ones he shall smart for it until he learns how to make good ones. Better not so cheap, better not so wisely governed, provided the people be self-governed. Monarchies are doubtless cheaper, doubtless not so corrupt, as republics; but the great end of all government is the elevation of mere individuals to the dignity of self-directive *persons;* the concentrhtion of the realized products of *all* in *each*. Hence the self-determination of the individual is the object of all government. No doubt an infant can be carried in the arms of the nurse more gracefully and with greater economy of time, but we prefer that he should learn to walk by himself. Such principles as these have penetrated our system of pedagogy.

The school is the theatre in which the transition takes place from obedience to external authority into free action from personal conviction. For this reason school government necessarily involves two elements, *coercion* and moral suasion; and the relative amount of each changes, from age to age, in the ratio that the patriarchal principal gets eliminated from society.

When children are to be brought up to simple, implicit obedience to the ruler of the state, and are never to expect a share in making the laws that govern them, the predominant influence in their education tends to produce subordination to authority. The self-will must, in all cases, be broken, and at all hazards. Children must be taught to obey for its own sake, and a life of obedience is thus prepared for. But in a country where self-rule is the destiny of every citizen, a different culture is required. Self-rule does not mean arbitrariness, for this is *anarchy*, or, rather, the rule of passion. Self-rule is the government of *reason*, and implies *conviction* in place of *caprice*. Therefore, discipline should act on the conviction of pupils. If punishment is to be administered, the pupil is to feel that he is the cause of his own pain, and that the teacher is an unwilling instrument in its infliction. An appeal to the reason and sense of honor in a pupil can be made only by placing some trust in his conviction of what is reasonable. Hence, we find, not only in America, but also in Europe, the current of popular sentiment to-day setting in favor of a system of school government that avoids such collisions with pupils as tend to excite their baser natures. The teacher has achieved success when he has learned to govern his pupils through their own convictions. This is the truly moral culture which popular education more and more aims to achieve. The conviction that each doer reaps the result of his own deed, and that every deed must be a positive character, or else it will come back injuriously on the doer — the substitution of rational action for that of selfish passion — these are inseparable; the former, the principle, the latter, its practical result. This discipline secures for the pupil self-restraint from the outset. It trains him to renounce the whims and caprices of the

moment for the sake of his own rational well-being.

The collision between the old and new modes of school management has brought the pedagogue into an unenviable light in modern literature. No one of us here but shudders at the mention of such monsters as Ichabod Crane, Erasmus Holiday, Old Squeers, Treacle or Gradgrind. Tyranny, petulancy, irritability, dogmatism and pedantry are charged to the account of the pedagogue by his accusers — Scott, Dickens, Goldsmith and Irving — and he must bear this imputation until he learns to govern his pupils through their own convictions. No one will contend, for a moment, that a school can get along without good order. But mere outward quiet is not good order; pupils must conspire *with* the teacher and not *against* him. In these days it may be affirmed that he who cannot govern his school without tyrannical thoughts, words or acts, cannot govern it at all. He has mistaken his vocation. The teacher who knows his art will find the most powerful levers in the pupil's own disposition. It is patent to all observers that this is an age of rapid decay for all sorts of external authority. The man who attempts to rule by rough personal demeanor, by imperious brow-beating and bullying, is quickly thrust aside from high positions. There never before was so frequent a triumph of this principle as in our late war. Dogmatic, bullying officers were, in most instances, displaced by those whose personal popularity indicated high esteem on their part for the convictions of their fellow-soldiers. People in this age demand to be shown the grounds of conviction; they are jealous even of advice as to practical conduct. Show me that this course injures me and mine and you have done sufficient. I do not wish to listen to your exhortations not to injure myself and others. Such things are presupposed as the basis of all conviction of whatever sort.

A great and continual incitive to this state of feeling is our form of government. The separation of the different branches, the independent organization of the legislative, judiciary and executive powers, removes the possibility of arbitrary personal influence to such an extent from the supreme power of the land, that intolerance of such influence in subordinate spheres gains constantly upon the commuity.

(*a*). The legislative power makes the general law; that any one should break it and incur punishment does not excite any personal feelings on the part of any one of the legislators. The criminal cannot blame the legislature for his punishment; the law was made before he committed his crime, and was made for his own protection, and for the protection of all. The individual legislator feels sorry at the fate of the individual criminal; he harbors no hate against him.

(*b.*) The judge applies the law; the criminal cannot blame him any more than he can the legislator. He knows that the judge did not make the law by which he (the criminal) is condemned. The judge has no hatred in his breast; he only does his prescribed duty without fear or favor, and without arbitrariness or malice.

(*c.*) The executive officers who carry out the sentence, are polite and friendly. They neither made the law nor applied it; they only execute it, and are bound to show no personal feeling in the matter.

Everywhere the criminal encounters only the impersonal presence of justice, and nowhere the arbitrary despotic will. Such is the great complex organic instrument that we have realized in our state for the security of liberty and justice.

In the prevailing spirit of such a government, there is no place left for imperious individuality to manifest itself. The individual can manifest itself with impunity only in the shape of benignant sympathy and counsel for the erring.

This spirit penetrates society and makes more certain every day the triumph of the new order of school discipline. Mr. Squeers and old Treacle must give place to the generous-hearted friend of youth, whose very presence stimulates his pupils to noble efforts, and whose atmosphere elevates all above the plane where the degrading influence of the rod is required.

This new spirit in education is more truly the Christian spirit than the one it replaces; and this for the reason that it secures to a greater extent the development of self-control on the part of the pupil. The cardinal virtues, prudence, fortitude, temperance and justice, all involve as their basis, self-control in some one of its forms. The seven deadly sins, on the other hand, are different species of excess occasioned by yielding to the appetites and passions. In proportion as the pupil learns the lesson of self denial, and has acquired that energy of character which enables him to sacrifice the ease and pleasure of the moment in order to gain reasonable ends, he has formed a moral basis for himself. Nor is this culture alone moral. I may with truth affirm that it is religious. I am aware that the remark is frequently made that public schools are "anti-religious" in spirit. If "anti-sectarian" is meant by that term, I will readily concede its injustice; but when it is intended to mean *atheistical*, or even *anti-christian*, I repudiate it. What a narrow view of the workings of providence that man must have, who thinks his religion so superficial a thing as to be easily left out of a course of study! Who does not know that his religion is the very life-blood of the civilization that is ruling the world and dissolving all alien forms by its resistless might; what kind of a Christian is he who is forever afraid that in the march of enlightenment his dogmas will will be all over-thrown and himself left creedless and forlorn! His faith is not equal to a grain of mustard seed. He is like one "who lays down his ear to the ground-swell of humanity, and as he listens to the tide of history moving on to the realization of the *divine event*, supposes its low murmur, as it meets with the sandbars that obstruct its progress, to be nothing but the pulse-throbbing of his own ears!" That which has grown out of a religion as its most positive form, is not likely to prove negative to it; nor can the exclusion of all sectarian doctrine from the public schools prevent the system from being essentially the greatest adjunct of religion. For religion demands the free insight of the soul as its normal condition, and, without it, it cannot lift itself above superstition.

In considering the spirit of our discipline in the school, we observe the tendency to substitute methods that appeal more to the free personal conviction of the pupil in place of the old plans of coercion. The contrast of our system is most marked with that of China. There the whole life and education is one of prescription. Dead formalities reign in affairs of the greatest moment as well as in the most trivial concerns of life. Even their alphabet is an iron mould which reacts on all the people, forcing them when young and plastic into prescriptive habits, compelling each one to rely on his memory, and to seek his guiding principle in something external. The young Chinese begins to learn to write by memorizing the shape of a complex sign for the first word, and another for the second, and so on until he has memorized several thousand before he can graduate as a scribe. He very naturally becomes a copyist in everything he does. The hand of Confucius, reaching down through twenty-five centuries, holds him firmly in the prescribed path.

Oriental forms of society *generally* fix the status of the individual far more definitely than do the Western. Had you been born in Hindostan, the son of a Sudra, you were predestined to the basest of employments. Your neighbor, the

Brahmin, was preordained to a blessed life here and hereafter. The institution of civil society in India is a vast web of fate which overshadows the individual, and prevents the mobility which is thought essential to humanity in Europe. Yet this mobility is not realized any where in Europe to the degree that it is in America.

Whereas, in Europe generally, the ruling class is hereditary to a greater or less extent, there is also a separation of other classes — the proletary below, and the property-holding middle classes above them. The tendency is to prepare the people by early education to remain in the same class — the proletarian's children to be proletarians still — the landholder's children to be landholders again. Mobility of classes is not encouraged to any great extent; but far more now than formerly. Since the French Revolution this has especially increased in France, and all over Europe to a less degree. The accident of birth shall not count against self-determination, in America, at least. Here we approach an absolute mobility, particularly in "the West," and every man is waited upon by the totality of surrounding conditions soon after his advent upon this part of the planet, and pressingly requested to show what power of will there is in him. The circumstances all invite him to do the greatest deed in his power and receive his wages therefor. In a new country — not yet developed — he may serve at any work, from splitting rails in the woods to hair-splitting in the court or legislature, or he may try a hand at "running the machine" of civil government.

Finally, the function of education, as regards the wealth of the community, may easily be told. The trained and disciplined mind will not prove a servile imitator — an educated boy will not grow up the mere drudge. It will not require two heads to direct one pair of hands.

The most profitable investment a community can make is in men who have directive power. It is not often that people sufficiently realize the value to the community of those individuals who discover new avenues of employment. How many cities, like Manchester and Lowell, have been made almost entirely by the invention of the power loom? Where would be the wealth of this Mississippi Valley, had no adventurous Fulton invented the steamboat? Or where the wealth of the South, had no Whitney invented the cotton gin? The resources of this state are untold, if we can find the men to utilize them by mechanic invention! Wealth is not merely *exchanged*, it is *created* by means of commerce and the arts of transportation. What vegetable productions are left ungathered! what minerals are undisturbed in their native beds! what animals live and die in the wilderness! These are not wealth to anybody. They must be *utilized*, and this cannot be done by mere mechanical labor. It is the *directive intelligence* that is required. This alone will impress into its service the elements, and force them to lift, and tear, and draw for it whenever and wherever it lists. The one educated directive man of the community creates wealth enough to pay all the tuition in all the schools of his town or city. When a great industry is created, laboring people flock near, seeking the best way to gain a livelihood. This causes real estate to double and treble in value; this brings commerce, and merchants thrive on the profits of the goods bought and consumed. The whole wealth of the community arises from the application of directive intelligence, and the corollary deduced is this: No other investment pays so well as a good system of schools, kept up to foster the growth of this directive intelligence. The rugged soil of Massachusetts, unfitted for agriculture, and furnishing in quantity only cheap granite as its mineral resource, yet has a population trained for seven generations in public and private schools. This population is the most productive

community of its size in the world. Its productive industry amounted, in 1860, to more than the entire staples of the West and South — cotton, tobacco, sugar and rice included; estimating these latter at $350,000,000. Natural resources are nothing without the disciplined skill to use them.

Education is productive of wealth to the community, but this is not the most convincing ground to urge in its favor. It is the production of *civilized men* that we aim at. Mere wealth is only an instrument useful in the production of culture. If we care for the education and refinement of the boys and girls of the present, if we see to their spiritual culture, they will grow up strong men and women, and material means will be at their disposal. What is the material world to the presence of the immortal soul? As Carlyle says: "Sweep away the illusion of time; glance from the near moving cause to its far distant mover; compress the three-score years into three minutes —are we not spirits that are shaped into a body, into an appearance, and that fade away again into air and invisibility? We start out of nothingness, take figure, and are apparations; round us, as round the veriest spectre, is eternity; and to eternity minutes are as years and æons. Thus, like a God-created, fire-breathing spirit-host, we emerge from the inane, haste stormfully across the astonished earth; then plunge again into the inane. Earth's mountains are leveled, and her seas filled up, in our passage; can the earth, which is but dead, and a vision, resist spirits which have reality and are alive?"

To us in our pioneer life, on the verge of civilization, these considerations of the supremacy of spirit and of the omnipotence of education in elevating man to the position of lord over matter and into the possession of his spiritual birthright, are peculiarly inspiring. From the lofty and serene heights of the world's history comes to us the still small voice:

> "Here eyes do regard you,
> In eternity's stillness;
> Here is all fullness,
> Ye brave, to reward you;
> Work, and despair not."

The Utility of Classical Studies as a Means of Mental Discipline.

[A paper read before Wisconsin Teacher's Association, Dec. 30, 1873, by Prof. WM. F. ALLEN, of the State University.]

By this topic I understand to be intended not a general defence of the disciplinary value of classical studies, but rather a definition and analysis of this value; that is to say, an examination of the kind of benefit derived from them, and the class of students to whom they are best adapted. With this view, I will lay down the proposition that in a course of study the primary object of which is discipline, there is a certain stage at which the ancient classics from the very best basis of instruction; and as a corollary to this, that in any course of study, so far as the object is discipline, the ancient classics are likely to prove the best feature to introduce at a certain stage.

This definition excludes, in the first place, all purely professional courses of study. If the classical languages find a place in these, as e. g., Latin in a medical course and Greek in a theological course, it is for their practical usefulness, not for their disciplinary power. It excludes, in the second place, all the lower grades of common school studies. The great majority of persons leave school at so early an age, that their studies must necessarily be such as will be of immediately practical use for them—the common English branches, which every person must have, and which are well enough adapted to be mental discipline required in their case. Our consideration is therefore confined to what we may call the High School Course and the College Course; in both of these courses discipline is the main thing, and practical utility a secondary one. The proportion of persons who have at once the opportunity and the taste to pursue such a course is small in any community; but the experience of our seats of learning shows that to make this "opportunity," money is far from being

the essential; our most brilliant and successful scholars are often those whose "opportunities" were simply "brains" and "wit."

I think that the discussions of the last few years have resulted in two important conclusions in regard to College courses; and I think I shall be supported in bringing High School courses under the same category. These are: first, that their primary object is discipline, as I have just assumed; second, that discipline is only the primary, and not the sole object, and must be combined with practical usefulness. That is to say, the problem is to decide what studies combine the highest degree of mental discipline with some degree at least of practical usefulness in the work of life. It may very well be that there are, for example, some developments of theoretical mathematics, some complicated applications of the rules of logic, some details of natural history, which have no conceivable use except in training the reasoning faculties, or exhibiting the principles of classification; but that their serviceableness in these respects is so great as to warrant their introduction into a course of study. There may very well be a certain proportion of mere mental gymnastics such as these; but a course made up exclusively, or in any large proportion of such studies, can find no place in our present schemes of education. Life is too short, and there is too much hard work to be done in it, to allow much of it to be spent in *mere* preparation; especially since it may be maintained that in general the studies that give us the best training, at the same time give us the best tools.

I should not be justified, therefore, in arguing for the introduction of the classical languages into a course which is essentially disciplinary, if it could not be proved that the knowledge of these languages will be serviceable in after life. This point I will not stop to prove, partly because it is not a part of my subject, partly because it has been proved a great many times already. It will be enough to say that there is probably no person who has a fair knowledge of Latin, who is not glad of it; and few persons of culture who are devoid of it, who would not be glad to have it.

My proposition is, then, that at a certain stage in the High School and College course, the ancient classics form the best means of discipline, and therefore may be pronounced an essential part of such course. To define further what this stage is, it will be necessary to enter into one or two preliminary inquiries, which will at once show their usefulness as a means of discipline; and at the same time define the point in question, the age, or grade, at which they will be found most advantageous.

Leaving out of view the moral and aesthetic nature, education must be mainly directed to the development and training of three faculties,—Observation, Memory and Reason. This is their natural order: we first observe, then remember, then reflect. The first two are devoted to the acquisition of knowledge, the third to its application. Following out this division, we come again to a proposition which has been generally agreed to by educators, and which, therefore, I will not stop to argue—that the education of the child ought to follow this natural order; that observation and memory should come first, and reasoning afterwards. Not that the three can or should at any time be entirely separated. The weak and immature reasoning powers of the child can receive a healthy exercise and development at every step in the acquisition of facts; and it is in this that the skill of the teacher mainly consists. Those teachers are equally at fault who make the entire instruction of the child a matter purely of memory, and those who on the other hand task their reasoning powers too severely by lessons above their comprehension. These views are supported by the almost unanimous judgment of experienced writers and thinkers upon

education, who are constantly urging the introduction of Natural History into the lower grades of schools, and the relegation of the technicalities of English Grammar to the upper classes, where they belong.

At the age, say of ten years, when the reasoning faculties should begin to receive a moderate exercise on their own account, no longer incidentally as in the earlier stages of education, probably the best selection of a study that could be made for this purpose, is that which has been made in practice—Mental Arithmetic. Arithmetic, and the other branches of mathematics, continued steadily and moderately,—not in the exorbitant degree which is common in our schools—should form the staple of *intellectual* education for some time after this period.

The lower mathematics, however, develop the reasoning faculties only on one side, that of exact proof; for this they are indispensable, and this is one indispensable side of education. But most demonstration is not exact, but only probable, and to train the reasoning faculties in the direction of probable proof, another class of studies is required. That is to say, to train the mind for its principal work, that of judging of evidence, when the evidence is conflicting or incomplete, when it is possible to come to only a provisional and uncertain decision, a mathematical training is inadequate. And as this is the character of most of the labor which the intellect has to perform in life, it follows that the main object of a disciplinary education should be to prepare the student to form judgments upon uncertain and conflicting evidence.

For this end a large number of studies are well adapted, none better than, for example, Geology, Physics and Political Economy, which are studies of the highest educational order. But these are studies which require as a foundation an amount of previous acquirement, in the way of subsidiary sciences, or of observation of facts, which make them come full early enough, if they are placed in the senior year, at the very end of a long course of study. The same thing is true in a degree of scientific and moral subjects as a whole; in proportion as they are highly educational, they are difficult and complicated; in proportion as they are simple and easy, they are unsuited to this, the main end of education, for the reason that they appeal chiefly to the eye and memory, rather than the reasoning faculties. The question is, what branch of studies will best fill the gap? will best develop in the youthful mind the capacity of reasoning upon doubtful and conflicting evidence? will form the best introduction to those higher sciences—physical and moral—which task the highest powers of the mind?

For this object there is nothing so good as the concrete study of language; that is, not the abstractions of grammar, but the practical dealing with words and sentences. The abstract study of language, whether in the philosophy of grammar, or the details of linguistic science, belong further on, with the higher range of subjects which come in best at a more advanced stage. At the period in question, say from twelve to sixteen years of age, the work of translating from one language into another—handling its concrete forms—calls into active and healthy exercise all the intellectual powers which need to be exercised at this stage. The memory plays a large part, especially in learning words and forms; but the translating itself is essentially a process of reasoning. The rules of inflection, indeed, may be so largely generalized as to make the learning of paradigms principally a matter of classification; and the study of the derivation and relationship of words takes away its purely mnemonic character from the acquisition of a vocabulary. But when it comes to constructions, the memory has very little to do with it; the pupil is obliged from the very first to work logically—the forms must be determined ac-

curately, and the power of each form must be understood, so that each step in translating shall be not a hap-hazard effort to make the words mean something, but an intelligent analysis of the elements present, so as to ascertain what they must and actually do mean.

It is not necessary to enter more minutely into this argument, because this, too, is a point well agreed to by educators. Every disciplinary course of study intended for the classes in question—High School pupils and the lower College classes,—is as a matter of fact made to consist very largely of the two branches, Mathematics and Language. The only point with regard to which there is any difference of opinion, is what languages are best suited to this end. The old system made use of the ancient languages; the present tendency is to institute the modern languages, and I will admit frankly that if there is room but for one language, in a course which while mainly disciplinary, is still intended to finish the pupils formal education, the claims of some modern tongue could hardly be resisted. Any language can be made highly disciplinary: and every course must have an eye to practical profit as well as to discipline. Our concern is with courses that admit of more than one language.

My proposition is that, apart from practical considerations, the Latin and Greek languages are intrinsically the best for the purposes of discipline; so much the best, that, if a course were exclusively disciplinary, there should be no hesitation, and in any course that admits of even but two languages, one of these should be one of the two.

The most obvious, although not the weightiest reason, is the very fact of the remoteness and strangeness of the language. It is a mistake, at the age in question, to try to make the work too easy for superficial labor. Real work, but not too much of it, is the right principle. The English language, for example, is as deserving of minute study and as favorable to mental discipline as any; but this study must consist in a considerable degree of abstractions, or of recondite points of scholarship, for the reason that the work that first engages the student of a foreign language, and which give him the mental exertion I have described, is impossible here. The boy knows what the sentence means, to start with; and if he is told to study its meaning more intently, he is set to a work of subtle and delicate order, unsuited to his rough style of mental labor. For this reason English affords material for only a term or two of severe study adapted to this stage. And what is true of English, is true in a degree of the modern languages cognate to English. The pupil finds nearly the same order of words and rules of construction as in his own language, so that he makes use very much more of mere memory, and less of the reasoning powers.

This brings us to the second and most important argument—the character of the languages themselves. The reason that translating from French or German is much more a matter of the memory than from Latin or Greek, is that their difficulties consist in so much greater degree, in idioms, rather than constructions; a natural result of their analytical character, or use of auxiliaries and prepositions instead of inflections. There is of course a difference in this respect. German is far less idiomatic than either French or English; and is for this reason the best adapted for purposes of mental discipline; Greek, on the other hand, is more idiomatic than Latin, and for this reason less adapted for purposes of mental discipline. It is in the language, as in the institutions of Rome, that the pupil comes most completely under the dominion of law. Now the analysis of idioms is a most useful and interesting practice at a more advanced stage, but for beginners they are a matter of pure memory, while laws of construction be-

long exclusively to the domain of reason. A regular construction may be readily analysed by the comparatively young pupil, and studied in its principles and application; and these laws of construction, in their varied uses and complicated relations, present precisely the kind of mental exertion which the pupil needs. In proportion, therefore, as a language is syntactical rather than idiomatic, it is adapted to the purposes of mental discipline; and while German and Greek possess this character in a high degree, the Latin possesses it in the highest degree. No language, therefore — no one, that is, of the languages commonly studied, can compare with Latin for this purpose. It should at the same time, be remarked that in arguing for a classical language, it does not necessarily follow that it should be Latin. Many persons are in favor of beginning Greek first, and if our text-books were adapted to this order, there would be no conclusive objection to this course. And if but one ancient language is to be studied, it might very well be that the superiority of Greek literature might outweigh the superior disciplinary advantages of the Latin language.

As our subject is the disciplinary power of the ancient languages, the discussion might end here; their disciplinary value consists essentially, in the two features just indicated — the rigorous application of laws, and the unfamiliar character of the constructions, which enables them to be studied from a more independent and objective point of view. This does not by any means exhaust the benefits of classical study, but the other benefits come under a somewhat different head. The philosophy and institutions of the ancients, for example, indispensable as they are to any student of philosophy or of political science, may — for this purpose — be as well studied through translations and modern commentaries and treatises, as from the original writers. There is, however, one large class of benefits, which may very properly come in here, although they have reference rather to the æsthetic than the intellectual nature; that is, the literary excellence of the ancients. The style, although primarily a matter of taste, is largely also dependent upon the reason; and from this point of view we find the study of the ancient *authors* as serviceable as that of the ancient *languages* is in the point of view already considered. This is an advantage that can be obtained only from the study of the original, not of translations; for the very essence of a good translation is that it should not preserve the idioms and stylistic peculiarities of the language from which the translation is made, but should transfer the thoughts and statements of the original into the idioms and forms of expression which belong to the language into which the translation is made.

The qualities of style in which the ancient writers far surpass the moderns are, symetry, precision and compactness; and these qualities arise chiefly from that same inflectional character which is the source of their syntactical perfection. The genius of the modern languages tempts to a loose, inexact and irregular style, so much so, that if a modern writer makes it his direct aim to reproduce these distinguishing qualities of the classical writers, the result is almost sure to be something at once obscure and ungraceful I can hardly think of any English writer except Lord Bacon, and perhaps Milton and Ralph Waldo Emerson, who have developed a style as elegant and perspicuous, and at the same time as terse, exact and vigorous as the ancients. Now it is of no use for a modern writer to *imitate* these qualities of the ancients; but it is of the greatest use to study them, to be familiar with them, to have the mind imbued with them; and then, unconsciously when he is simply doing his best to write correct, idiomatic English, some traces perhaps of their fine qualities will find their way to his pen.

The course of study, therefore, which I favor for those who have the opportunity and taste for a thorough disciplinary training, is to begin in childhood with those branches that train the eye and exercise the memory; drawing, coloring, natural history, the elements of geometry, simple applications of numbers, stories from history, and the descriptions of foreign countries. All of these, in a greater or less degree, admit of some exercise of the reasoning powers; and as these powers become more vigorous and mature, their exercise should occupy a larger and longer share of time, until at some period, between twelve and fourteen, or even later, the pupil may to the best advantage take up the study of the ancient languages, with a view to regular and systematic intellectual discipline.

It has been necessary for me, in presenting my views as to the place of the ancient languages in an educational scheme, to touch somewhat upon the province of others, so far as to assign their respective places to other studies. All parts of an educational scheme hang so closely together, that one cannot be adjusted without reference to the others. No apology therefore is due for thus transgressing.

Sanitary Regulations of the School Room and Number of School Hours.

[Extracts from a Paper read before the State Teachers' Association, at Madison, Dec. 30, 1873, by JOSEPH HOBBINS, M. D.]

The first, and by far the most important feature of the sanitary regulations of our schools, is that of Ventilation; to this, therefore, I would first call your attention. When one comes to consider the manifold sources of contamination of the atmosphere of our school-rooms, so much suggests itself, so much there is to say which ought to be said and repeated a thousand times, that one shrinks from the task of laying open the subject of school ventilation. Externally the low situation of some school-houses, being built in the vicinity of marsh land, where, owing to rapid evaporation, the average temperature is low, is a great source of evil; also the malarial poison generated in such localities, and the emanations from adjacent places of convenience, where deodorization and cleanliness are apt to be neglected, and whose drainage is more or less impracticable. Internally, take into consideration the unscientific system of warming; the poison thrown out by respiration, by perspiration, by unclean clothing, or clothing saturated with the matter of infectious disease, etc.; added to which is the almost absolute absence of any proper ventilation; and it will appear to you as it does to me, that a school-room must of necessity become, even in times of health, a fruitful source of disease, and in an epidemic season, a focus from which disease must and does radiate, with as much certainty and constancy as effect follows cause.

The progress that sanitary science has made of late years has taught us the great fact that almost all diseases enter the system through the impurity of the atmosphere we breathe. When this truth was first propounded, men ridiculed its teaching, and regarded the asserters of it as speculative enthusiasts. Time has now furnished statistics from which we can deduce, with unerring certainty, that such is the fact, and which at the same time prove just as certainly that by the purification of such atmospheres, such diseases can be and are daily prevented.

A school-house, especially in a new country, where from a variety of causes malaria is more apt to prevail, should have for its site a more or less elevated situation. This secures comparative freedom from soil-emanations and low temperature. It should not be surrounded too closely by buildings or trees, but be open to the winds—to a plentiful supply of pure air. All external sources of animal and vegetable poisons should be regularly and carefully removed, and all stagnant ponds and sluggish mud-streams and mill-dams avoided; for science has taught us to regard with dread the ema-

nations of decomposition in such places, as sources of disease and death.

A school-room should be high in order not only that it may be airy, but well lighted; inasmuch as light has a strong similarity to heat—both being but modifications of the same cause. Therefore as in nature, so in our artificial structures, one should be considered as much as the other, and proper arrangements must be made for ventilation. * * * To prove the necessity of all this, I will quote the old experiment: Place a lighted candle on the floor of a room at the open door; and, if there is no other access for air into the apartment, it will be observed that a current of cold, and therefore dense air, on entering, will drive the flame of the candle inwards. By holding the candle midway between the top and bottom of the door-way, the flame will be quite still, because no current exists in that position. If the candle is held so as that its flame shall be near the top of the door, it will be observed to be driven outwards, because thence the hot and lighter air makes it escape. * * * It is evident then that a supply of pure air must be made to enter at the lower part of a room, and an escape for hot air should be arranged for at its top. And yet, if you will walk into some of our city school rooms at your first opportunity, you will find, as I have found, hot air rushing into the room from the floor, and cold air let in from the tops of the open windows. A system—or rather practice—opposed to natural laws, and therefore opposed to science, and one affording but a very questionable ventilation.

Let us for a moment question it. It should be borne in mind that gaseous bodies, such for instance as air, expand on the addition of heat; that expanded air being lighter of course tends to rise, inducing air of a more dense and a cooler nature to rush in to take its place. Now the very fact of the expansive and rising character of hot air clearly points out that it should be admitted from or near the floor, and from the heavier nature of cool air, it is equally clear that if a pure atmosphere is to rise in the room, it also must be admitted at about the same level. And just so far as Nature is imitated in this respect—and only so far—will ventilation be successful, and doubt and questioning set at rest.

Objections, however, are raised to this mode of admitting cold air. The answer to these objections may be given with some such explanation as this: Just so soon as a stream of cold air is admitted where hot air is being forced into the same room, the cool air in all its purity becomes immediately expanded by the warmth, rises to the top, carrying with it the impurities being generated by the occupants of the room, and then floats away by its own law of expansion—through the apertures made in or near the ceiling for that purpose, the very warmth derived from the breath and bodies of those present, giving additional impetus, by the union of currents they effect, with the general current in the room.

But in order to see that we are not attaching too much importance to the necessity for a proper mode and an adequate amount of ventilation, let us briefly examine the noxious influences brought to bear upon the atmosphere of a school room. First in importance, perhaps, is that arising from respiration. From fifteen to twenty pints of vitiated air is upon the average expired each minute from the lungs. At each expiration a volume of poison is cast into the air about us. In addition to having robbed the atmosphere of a portion of its vital part, we also set free at the same time its nitrogen, which forms four-fifths of its bulk, and which is a gas that will not support life.

Then follow the exhalations from the skin. Here you must permit me, for reasons which will afterwards appear, to make a little digression.

Under a microscope of sufficient power

it will be observed that the human skin is punctured, as it were, with almost innumerable small orifices, probably averaging three thousand five hundred to the square inch. These orifices are the openings of the perspiratory ducts from which the perspiration may be seen at times to flow. Now, these ducts, or channels, or tubes as they are variously called, communicate with little cavities upon the under surface of the true skin which contain very small glands, whose function is to receive the impure blood always passing into them, and to purify it by casting out, through the perspiratory ducts, the waste and offensive matters which it contained. The blood being thus purified, another set of vessels carries it back again to the body, and this work in the skin is constantly going on. * * * There are sixty feet of these little ducts, or canals, to every square inch of the human skin. Now, the number of square inches of surface on a man of ordinary height and bulk is 2,500; the number of pores 7,000,000; and the number of inches of perspiratory tube 1,750,000, that is, 145,833 feet, or 48,600 yards, or nearly twenty-eight miles. Such a vast piece of mechanism must needs have very important duties to perform, duties most essential to the well being of the human economy. Not the least important of these is the one already alluded to—the casting out of the impurities of the blood, the retaining of which, because the pores are closed by winter cold air from upper sashes, or the imparting of which to another, because of want of ventilation, is equally destructive to health and to life.

That these impurities, or emanations from the skin, should in quantity be commensurate with the mechanism employed for the purpose of casting them off, you would be prepared to expect. Consequently, it is not a matter of surprise to learn that it amounts to about thirty-three ounces in twenty-four hours. With these figures before us, it is incredible that any one should be found in connection with public schools, indifferent to this subject of ventilation. And yet these figures are to be found in almost every book upon the subject.

But am I not making the worst of a bad case—am I not exaggerating? Are these products of perspiration so poisonous in their character as is set down? This has been tested in a very startling manner, and admits of very immediate proof. It was wished upon the occasion of some great celebration, to have a living figure to represent the Golden Age, and a poor child was innocently covered all over with gold-leaf and varnished. The child died in about six hours. * *

I have confined myself, so far, in speaking of poisonous emanations of the skin to those which are given out in health; but to lend force to what I have just said, it may not be out of place to allude to those which arise from disease. To be sure these may be said to be exceptional cases; nevertheless they are, to my knowledge, sufficiently common to warrant, if not to demand, some notice. There is a class of serious diseases which, by medical men, are known as contagious, and by the public, as "catching diseases;" such for instance as typhoid fever, small pox, scarlet fever, meales, etc. Now, the poisonous matter of any one of these diseases given out in a school room by a diseased pupil is sufficient to so affect the school atmosphere as to convey the disease. Hence, in time of epidemics, ventilation becomes more than ever necessary, since it is the only practicable means —the only means the teacher possesses—that can be used as a preventive of disease; it being well understood that "*where ventilation is complete, in other words, where the gaseous poison is freely diluted with atmospheric air, the sphere of its operation is very limited.*"

There is yet another source of poisonous emanation to which schools are exposed; I mean the clothing of children. Concerning cleanliness in general, the teacher can not lay too great stress; but

uncleanliness in the scholar's clothing—I mean uncleanliness as well to the nose as to the eye—is a matter that should not escape notice. There is a very peculiar and most marked odor attached to woolen clothing that has been shut up in some close and neglected dwelling, if only for a night, and be assured such odor is of poisonous character.

But sometimes disease and death are carried by woolen clothing, that gives you no notice by its appearance, or unpleasant odor. A London physician of the highest standing in his profession, relates, in one of his lectures, that a piece of flannel used on a child's neck in a family that had suffered from scarlet fever, gave rise a year afterwards to the same disease, in the same house, which had been vacant during the time. The flannel had been shut up in a close drawer, and not been exposed to the air.

Another source of impure air is only too noticeable in schools heated by furnaces, particularly when from the comparative mildness of the weather little fire is required, but is liable to occur at other times, as I have personally observed in the Second Ward School House of this city, which is claimed to be one of our best arranged buildings.

We have seen how the foul air of the neglected school room is constituted. Robbed of its life-preserving oxygen; filled more or less with life-destroying carbonic acid gas; loaded with poisonous emanations from the breath, from the skin, from the clothing, and sometimes from external emanations; the room warmed with air at times more or less deprived of its moisture, and at times loaded with the products of combustion; ventilated in a way calculated to do almost as much harm as good;—we have already heard all this,—but it is not possible that we shall ever hear the amount of mischief of which it is the cause, because too general and possibly spread over a life time. * * * The atmosphere of a school room is not simply impure air—it is rather to be regarded, oft times, as an atmosphere of poison—such as is to be found in ships which are unclean, badly ventilated or over-crowded, or in prisons or hospitals. Consequently it must and does give rise to and become, as I have witnessed in this city, the exciting cause of typhoid fever. You cannot live on poison; and whether you eat it, or drink it, or breathe it, the result is the same. I cannot easily imagine a more prolific source of disease than the one we are now considering, especially, as I have before said, when an epidemic atmosphere prevails; the predisposed being ready to take on disease.

But beside the ills which arise to health from air filled with animal emanations, there is another class of ills which occur from the presence of too much carbonic acid gas, so freely and so constantly poured forth by the breath and the skin. I mean nervous diseases.

That we may appreciate the action of this poison in our schools, it is only necessary to run over its effects in the order in which they commonly occur. When this gas has accumulated to the extent of one per cent. in the air respired, feelings of faintness and uneasiness across the brow begin. At two per cent. the heart is quickened, the faintness greater; there is some giddiness and nausea. At three per cent. there are vertigo, fluttering of the heart, nausea and sickness, followed by an overwhelming sense of muscular prostration. At this moment the contractions of the heart become very feeble, the skin relaxes, and is bedewed with a cool, clammy perspiration. These symptoms deepen with the increased quantity of carbonic acid in the air respired, until the utmost limit of toleration is reached. From these effects it is certain that confinement in an atmosphere charged with carbonic acid, even to the extent of one per cent. only, quickly deranges the functions of the heart and ultimately deteriorates the tissues themselves of that organ. It is certain that in this func-

tional disturbance lie the germs of organic mischief, and that frequent repetitions of this cause will undoubtedly end in organic disease. "We can at most," says Hufeland, "breathe the same air only four times; for it is then, from the finest support of life, converted by ourselves into the most deadly poison."

Executive Session of the State Teachers' Association.

MADISON, WIS., Dec. 29, 1873.

Pursuant to public notice, the Executive Committee of the Wisconsin Teachers' Association, with a large number of the teachers of the state, met in the room of the bank comptroller, in the state capitol, and organized under the chairmanship of B. M. REYNOLDS, of La Crosse, President of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association. J. Q. EMERY, of Fort Atkinson, was chosen Secretary.

Prayer was offered by Dr. CHAPIN, of Beloit College.

The discussion of the first topic upon the programme, "Compulsory Attendance," was opened by Supt. CHANDLER of Dane county.

Mr. CHANDLER said that the pressure of official business had prevented him from making a full preparation, but he would make no apology. This subject had been fully discussed elsewhere, and a strong pressure was being brought to adopt this measure here. All of us, no doubt, wished to do right. He would call attention to a few points which should be attended to. The topic of compulsory attendance, involves:

1st. The enforced attendance of every child upon the public school long enough to enable him to read, write and cipher in simple numbers. We must insist that this attendance be long enough to reach these results. This cannot be accomplished in as brief a time as one would at first think. It usually takes from five to eight years. This then, involves the enforced attendance upon school during this length of time. We must look at this question in all its bearings. We must determine the age, which shall be included in the operation of this law. This will be attended with some difficulty. Select any five years of a child's life, and there will be some difficulty to say that the law shall lay its hand upon the child, and take him from the control of the parent who may need his services in manual labor.

2. This measure involves the supersedure of parental authority, or rather the assumption of parental authority by the State. This is an innovation. At first thought this may not seem far out of the way. As we look at the dangers of the State from ignorance, and the right of the State, it may not seem very objectionable, but it is an innovation, and one which will meet with opposition. And it may be questioned whether the State has the right to assume all the authority which the enforcement of this law would require. This supersedure of parental authority involves other matters — it brings with the question the right of the parents to exercise their judgment as to the propriety of patronizing certain schools. Certain parents felt loth to patronize the public schools, and knowing the circumstances surrounding the public schools, he himself would not only neglect, but refuse to send to the public school.

It was a serious question whether the assumption that the merest rudiments of learning would make the child a better citizen. He would not argue against learning, but he thought that a little learning was a dangerous thing.

3. It involves the assumption that the merest fragment of learning *thus acquired* would render the child a better citizen. He was in not in favor of ignorance. He was in favor of the most widely spread education. But take away the stimulus of love and bring him into bondage to compulsion, and he did not believe that we would gain as good results as now.

This law implies,

1st. Such an indifference to and neglect

of our present school facilities, as to require it. It would be unwise to ask for such a law if there is not the most serious demand for it. Is there such indifference? To answer this we must fall back to statistics. The figures published show that a large number of our children are not attending school, and our last census shows that illiteracy is on the increase. He had a theory on this point, and did not think it proved this indifference.

2. Such an absence of parental care and such indifference to the future welfare of their children as to demand such a law. It might be well in some cases to pass laws to provide against some future evils. If the depraved tendencies of our nation are such as to warrant us in believing that our citizens will thus neglect their children, then it might be well to pass such a law. But we need the most positive proof that such depravity exists.

3. Such a mercenary spirit and practice in the employment of children of tender age in manual labor, as to demand such a law. If this is the case here among us, we ought to protect the children, and give them at least the care we give to dumb animals. But does this state of things exist in Wisconsin? On one side of his district they raised tobacco, and it interfered with the schooling of the children. He would go so far as to favor a law forbidding children to be kept out of school to tend tobacco. But on the other side of his district they raised onions, and to be consistent, he must also prohibit children from being employed in weeding onions.

He had alluded to the census report of growing illiteracy. His theory was that the illiteracy does not grow out of neglect of our schools, but it was imported illiteracy. It was largely composed of grown up young people who were kept from school by their pride. He knew of cases where young men grown were reading in the same class with children of six or seven years. This did not look like neglect of school privileges.

The figures taken from his notes of visits showed that but one-half of the children in 29 districts were attending school. But this was not the fact. His visits were all before Christmas: if he should make his visits now he would find fifty per cent. of these absentees at school. The school-houses in his district averaged $600 in value. There was expended on an average $4.25 for every pupil in the district. This did not argue indifference. He had a better remedy. It was to have better schools. He was fearful that in our great zeal to have schools of a certain kind, we had lost sight of one of the greatest aims of the common school. It is the duty of the teachers, if there are scholars in the district who do not attend, to know the reason why. The old plan of boarding round was not an unmitigated evil. It would be a good thing if we could have a missionary or two in every district.

J. Q. Emery, of Ft. Atkinson continued the argument. He found himself alone in his advocacy of compulsory attendance. If he believed in the question as stated by Mr. Chandler he would also oppose it. The child had a right to an education, and no person had a right to take it from him it. He would not favor sending all children to the public schools. We have academies and colleges which are not public schools. He would hold that the child had a right to an education and that the State has the right to enforce this education. The State has a right to say how much we must know at least that we may be safe citizens; and it has the right to demand this education. The child may get it anywhere, at home or in college, but he must have this.

Prof. North of Pewaukee, said he did not question the right of the State to see that each child should have an education. He would go further, it was the duty of parents to bring up their children to habits of industry. A close logician might go on and prove that law.

It is not expedient, for it would fail.

No board of supervisors would dare to put it in force. The dog law could not be enforced.

It is not necessary. In Waukesha Co., the per centage of attendance from 7 to 14, was over 86.

Mr. CHANDLER said the attendance in his district was over 90.

Mr. NORTH said he knew that Waukesha county was not at the head, but he held that an attendance of 86 per cent. gave no caase for alarm for the commonwealth, and this was the only reason for this law.

In Waukesha county each child had on an average 40 weeks schooling. A person so educated was not a dangerous citizen.

A man was not necessarily a bad citizen because he could not read and write. He knew plenty of them in Waukesha county. Whenever there was a really good school, there was a good attendance. The idea that every good-for-nothing teacher should have the power to compel the children to drink of his muddy water was an outrage. To make a horse eat, give him something better than an empty rack. To give better advantages was all the compulsion necessary.

Dr. CHAPIN, of Beloit College, said: Two or three questions had arisen in his mind which had been partially answered, These questions were:

1st. Is it necessary to attain the end?

2d. Is it practicable?

3d. Supposing such a law was enacted, would it accomplish the object? In some communities such might be the only remedy. But such did not seem to be the case in Wisconsin. He thought that illiteracy had been referred to its true cause. He thought that other agencies would reach the end quicker than legislation, of which he thought we had ten times too much.

Dr. FALLOWS said that he had been slow in reaching the conclusion that in this State the law should step in and compel the parent to send his children to school. Looking at the working of the laws in European countries and in the States in this country where it has been adopted, and looking at the 54,000 persons in this State who could not write, he thought that the law should step in. There were over 50,000 children in Wisconsin who never attended school at all.

Dr. CHAPIN asked if Gen. FALLOWS had discovered any way by which the law could be enforced?

Dr. FALLOWS said he had not.

Dr. CHAPIN said that GUIZOT said that GREGORY failed as a reformer from attempting too much.

Dr. TWOMBLY said that he was in favor of compulsory attendance. This involved a necessity for it. If there were no children to be educated, then there was need for it, but if children were being neglected, then he would be in favor of a law compelling them. He was satisfied that educational statistics were unreliable. He knew the law had worked well at the east. But he was not in favor of laws which the moral sentiment of the people would not enforce. The first duty would be the missionary work.

Mr. MARSH criticised the statistics. He knew that many clerks made out these figures without leaving the house. In one instance he visited every family in the district, and found the number twenty-five too high in the clerk's report.

Mr. RAIT, of Sheboygan, said that he congratulated Messrs. NORTH and CHANDLER upon living in such enlightened regions. He did not; of all the children in Sheboygan, only about one-half of the census attended school. He said that in the factories there were boys deformed by being put to labor before they were strong enough, and he knew they were deformed mentally.

Rev. Mr. PRADT said it was unsafe to reason from exceptional cases; and he knew that the state of things at Sheboygan was wholly exceptional. He thought that our present work should be to make the schools better; and he thought that

where the schools were good, nearly the whole of the children attended school; that the effort of attraction should be more thoroughly tried before we resort to compulsion.

Superintendent SHAW, of Madison, also presented a paper on the subject.

The subject was still further discussed by Prof. O. R. SMITH and Mr. MARSH.

The discussion of the subject of Attendance on Teachers' Institutes was opened by Prof. ROBT. GRAHAM: No one could doubt that intelligence was necessary to the well being of a republic. What means shall be used to secure this intelligence? Wisconsin has placed upon her Constitution that district schools shall always be free. To supply these schools requires 6,000 teachers, and to properly train these teachers requires special instruction. He showed that 90 per cent. of the teachers in Wisconsin had received no special training. Can a supply of properly trained teachers be obtained? The normal schools furnish about 600; colleges and high schools will furnish as many more, but not one-quarter the number required. In this state of things, the meagre aid of Institutes may be of great service. This Institute work was disheartening, but faith is necessary. The Normal Board and the State have both made ample provision for these institutes. Every County Superintendent is obliged to hold one each year. They should be held mainly in September and October, to be immediately followed by examination. They should be held five days, with two sessions a day. Work to be done will be as follows: one-half given to instruction; one-third given to school methods; one-sixth to model class-work and criticism. Teachers do not attend these institutes,—not 50 per cent. of the the teachers attend.

Let the State Superintendent see that each County Superintendent holds an institute, as required by law. Let the State Superintendent publish a list of County Superintendents, who do, and do not, hold institutes. Let each County Superintendent notify each teacher of the institute, and publish a list of teachers in attendance, and give to each teacher so attending five per cent. additional on examination; hold the institute in the fall; give at the spring examination certificates for only six months. Let each County Superintendent pledge an attendance of fifty per cent. of teachers, and a failure to secure this, forfeit the State aid the next year. He believed that this plan would secure an enlarged attendance. He would emphasize particularly the point of requiring the publication, by the County Superintendent, of the work to be done, so that teachers might come prepared. If they were well prepared, they would be anxious to come, while if they were consciously ignorant, they would shrink from exposing themselves to unexpected criticism.

The discussion was continued by Prof. SALISBURY, of Whitewater. He said the cause of education does not command so much money that it can afford to waste a dollar of what it has. Our teachers are not yet so well equipped that they can afford to neglect any means of improvement. How shall institutes be made worth their cost? In compulsory attendance, says one; deny licenses to non-attending teachers, say others. The first essential to an increased and satisfactory attendance upon the institutes of the State, is that they be made to command the confidence of the educational public. To secure this, institutes must be made really valuable. But grant perfection to the institute itself, there is yet a class of so-called teachers who will not voluntarily seek the aid offered. They have no love for perfection even, if it demand of them any intellectual exertion or pecuniary outlay. How shall they be brought to the fountains, except they be compelled? The institute can do but little for such.

The superintendent who asks for compulsory legislation gets no sympathy of

mine. He, of all men, can, if he will, do most to improve the teaching force, and to keep out the cheats and the drones, to awaken enthusiasm in the worthy, and to lead them to all sources of inspiration and improvement. But there are certain outward and, so to speak, mechanical measures, the adoption of which will do much to assist both superintendent and teacher in overcoming untoward circumstances. Let it be once understood that the institute is a fixed institution of regular recurrence at convenient seasons and places, and a great step is gained. Punctuality on the part of conductors and lecturers is important. Satisfactory and definite arrangements for cheap board and good accommodations are of the highest consequence. But if we must have any compulsion in the matter, let it be local and indirect. This is the conclusion of the whole matter: the institutes must be made strong, practical, reliable, attractive, even though they cost more money and labor than has yet been expended. But above all and behind all there must stand an intelligent, honest, *live* supervision. Time and patience are necessary; good work must be done and continue, and in this we will put our trust.

Prof. McGregor, of Platteville, said it would be the merest impertinence for him to aitempt to add anything to what had been said; but he would most heartily endorse the views presented by Prof. Salisbury.

Prof. Allen, of the State University, then presented a paper upon the "Utility of classical studies as a means of mental discipline."

[This paper is given in full in the present number of the Journal.]

Prof. Winchell, of Milwaukee, said that he would not attempt any remarks in addition to the able and admirable essay of Prof. Allen. He considered the subject as one of great interest, and one worthy the careful attention of the teachers. He was heartily in sympathy with the study of the ancient classics in our high schools and colleges, and fully believed in the practical utility of classical studies. He had observed that pupils who had been drilled in the ancient tongues graduated from the high school with a far superior culture, and a better preparation for the higher courses of instruction, than those who had not pursued such studies.

Prof. Salisbury thought that these studies should be required in the Normal School, as the power of discrimination by this study was precisely what the teacher needs.

President Chapin asked if it would not be advisable to begin the study of grammar with Latin rather than with English, as is the custom. He said that at ten years of age he had acquired a sort of knowledge of English grammar, and was pronounced competent to parse any English sentence. Then he went to grammar school and began Latin grammar. Here a new world opened to him, and he saw that all he had learned in English grammar was a mere mechanical exercise; but here he saw that no sense could be got out of a Latin sentence before the grammar of it was understood. And he would raise the question whether it would not be advisable for children to begin the study of grammar in the Latin grammar.

Prof. Kerr said that his experience would lead him to answer the question by President Chapin in the affirmative. He had always considered the time spent in the abstrusities of English grammar as entirely wasted.

Prof. Carpenter stated that the reason why English grammar is so generally useless is because it is not English grammar, but Latin grammar in an English form.

Prof. Feuling said that he was surprised to find this topic brought up as a question for discussion, as he supposed it long ago settled. He thought the great benefits of the study of language were due to the formative elements; and in

this he did not see why other languages possessing the same peculiarities would not offer the same benefits. He alluded to the benefits to be derived from the study of a modern language under the light of a modern philology.

Rev. Mr. PRADT said that he thought the earlier a student could begin Latin the more rapid would be his progress.

President ALBEE said that he began life in a saw mill and thus grew up thoroughly practical. So at the age of 21 he began the study of Latin and Greek, on the idea of making it pay, and upon the dollar basis, he had found it to pay in the fullest sense of the term. He saw so much culture outside of classical training, that he sometimes thought that he was drifting away from the ideas with which he graduated. Is there not so much in mathematics and science and our own language, that requires our attention to such an extent that it is hardly worth while to teach classics at all? The practical question for him, as the presiding officer of a school preparing teachers, was, shall we leave out the classical languages? If the classics were in all cases additional, it would be well, but in most cases the question would be, what must be omitted? shall we omit anything for the classics, and if so, what?

Mr. REYNOLDS said he thought that here in Wisconsin we were drifting towards exclusively English studies. He hoped that the subject would be further discussed, and a report given upon it.

On motion of Mr. Emery, the subject was referred to a committee consisting of President ALBEE, Prof. ALLEN and President CHAPIN.

Adjourned.

AFTERNOON, Tuesday, Dec. 30.

The session opened with brief reports by gentlemen from various parts of the State. This feature of the session was of great interest.

On motion of Mr. PARKER, a Committee of Conference was appointed to invite the County Superintendents to meet with the State Teachers' Association. The Chair appointed as such committee Prof. MCGREGOR, and Messrs. SABIN and HUTTON. Mr. CHAMBERLAIN, of Lancaster, Mr. RAIT, of Sheboygan, Prof. SALISBURY, of Whitewater, reported for their several localities. J. Q. EMERY, of Fort Atkinson, alluded in feeling terms to the late Mr. PURDY, whose influence was still manifest there. Prest. CHAPIN reported for Beloit College: he stated that they had inaugurated a philosophical course, which should be completely parallel to the classical course, requiring as much preparation and giving equal culture.

Prof. PETTIBONE, of the preparatory school of Beloit College, explained the working of that department. Prof. EASTMAN reported for the Beloit public schools; Prof. WOOD, for Racine; Prof. WINCHELL. for the Milwaukee High School; Mr. MARSH, for Waterloo; Prof. KERR, for the State University; Supt. SHAW, for Madison; Mr. SABIN, for Depere; Supt. BURTON, for the Orphan's Home; President ALBEE reported for the Oshkosh Normal School, which the past year had sent out 70 teachers. Supt. HUTCHINS reported for Fond du Lac; Prof. MCGREGOR, for Platteville Normal School; Mr. DURKEE reported a growing interest in classical studies in Kenosha; Mr. BROUGH reported for La Crosse; Mr. CURRIER, for Stoughton. Dr. FALLOWS was called on, who spoke for the State at large, alluded to the growing prosperity of the State University, and the colleges of the State; said that we had the best institute system of any State, and a common school system of which all should be proud.

Dr. S. H. CARPENTER, of the State University, spoke upon "The Relation of the different Educational Institutions of the State." He laid down the following propositions:

1. That the education furnished by the State should be fundamental or disciplinary and not technical.

2. That provided it remains thus fundamental the State may furnish any grade of instruction.

3. That the strictest economy of time, money and force should be demanded.

4. That such economy demands that our educational forces be so adjusted as to work in perfect harmony—no results being unnecessarily duplicated, and no desirable results omitted.

5. That economy forbids us to use any more or more expensive force than just sufficient to accomplish the desired result.

From these propositions the following inferences were drawn:

1. The State should determine the grade of each class of schools, and ass'gn to each its appropriate work.

2. That the State should provide schools of a grade intermediate between the common schools and the University, so that the educational current may be nowhere obstructed.

3. The principle of division of labor should be fully applied.

[We have the promise of a resume of his remarks for next month.]

Mr. MARSH thought that if the educational work of the State were under martial law, such a system might be enforced; but it would not meet the public approbation.

Mr. CHANDLER said that when any new measure is proposed, some minds could only see the difficulties in the way. Mr. MARSH was a good hand to do it, but he had but a few moments ago said that they had just now adopted this very system, and had established nine grades, from which no child could graduate, except upon a careful examination. This point of unity is one which we must forever keep in view, and the great objection to the adoption of such a plan as that proposed, is the difficulties imagined to be in the way.

Dr. CHAPIN thought the discussion should not end until more emphasis had been given to the most practical point which had been brought forward, and that was the lack of intermediate schools—a lack which ought to be met. Take the number of young men in all our colleges, and what a meagre number compared with the million of people in the State. We need a larger culture, a broader development. We need just the work done as suggested in the paper presented. We need a practical definition of the primary school, and such work well done. Teachers who feel that there is something in them wish to interest their pupils, and to teach everything up to geology, and the consequence is that the pupils can neither read, write nor cipher well. He thought the paper would do good, if it called attention to this single point.

Mr. HOLFORD thought that there was a damming up behind the point mentioned, and that the primary schools needed attention, as well as the intermediate schools.

On motion of Mr. EMERY, the thanks of the Association were tendered to the railway companies, the hotels, W. D. Parker, the railway clerk, and the press, for courtesies extended.

EVENING SESSION, Dec. 30.

Prof. PARKER stated that this meeting was not the regular session of the State Teachers Association, but had grown out of the Principal's Association. At the summer meeting there was but little opportunity for discussion, and this meeting had grown out of a felt want. As yet it had no regular organization, and the question was whether we should abandon the measure or go on. He proposed that we organize under the general organization of the State Teachers' Association, and moved that the officers of that Association be requested to call annually a meeting of all the educational interests of the State at the capitol, at this time each year, which was adopted.

Dr. JOSEPH HOBBINS of Madison, read a paper upon the Sanitary Regulations of the School Room and Number of School Hours.

[This important paper is printed in part, in the present number, and will be finished next month.]

On motion of Prof. MCGREGOR, the thanks of the Association were tendered to Dr. HOBBINS for his able and practical paper.

Mr. LITTLE, of the Blind Asylum, said that the Blind Asylum was a part of the school system of the State. They received pupils from 8 to 20; although most of them postponed their education until they had grown up. Their work was divided into three classes; 1st, the common school studies; 2d, the high school studies and lastly, music. The three best organs in Rock county were played by blind men. Every child was also taught some industrial calling. The hand must be made to supply the place of the eye. The number of avocations which the blind can pursue is necessarily limited. Boys are taught broom-making, and the girls are taught music and sewing.

Mr. WEED, of the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, was glad to see that his institution was recognized as forming a part of the school system of the State. Some expected too much and others too little of their pupils, as no standard could be fixed. They sought to give the mutes the power of communicating with each other, and generally to make them self-supporting. He asked the teachers to forward the names of any deaf and dumb children in their districts.

Mr. HENDRICKSON, of the Industrial School, said that he came to listen and not to speak, but was glad of the opportunity to speak for the institution which he represented, as he was aware that from the nature of their work, it was not very well known. But while at Whitewater he saw in the basement of the Normal School some of the stones from the old industrial school, which was burned down a few years ago. This he took as an augury that the industrial school had entered the school system of the State. They had three classes — criminals, incorrigibles and vagrants. They were all bright capable boys, ready to learn business habits, if not apt to learn by the slow process of learning by books. They had 194 pupils. Boys were educated in the common school branches and every one is taught a trade. The boys were divided into families, each family being in charge of a man and woman, who take the place, so far as care is concerned, of father and mother. Every boy has an employment — some in the tailor shop, some in the shoe shop, and others in the broom shop. He thought there was great need of an industrial school for girls. * * * *

President AREY, of the Whitewater Normal School, and W. D. PARKER, Principal of Janesville High School, presented papers on the "Relation of the Public Schools to the Moral and Social Well-being of the Community.

[We shall give these papers hereafter.]

WEDNESDAY, A. M., Dec. 31.

E. H. SPRAGUE, Principal at Elkhorn, read a paper upon "What Shall we Teach," and A. J. HUTTON, of West Eau Claire, one upon "The Moral Education of the School Grounds and their Surroundings."

[We hope to obtain these papers for future publication.]

Prof. CURTIS of the Winona Normal School gave an exercise in penmanship, illustrating his system of teaching.

Upon motion of R. C. SPENCER, President of Business College, Milwaukee, the Association extended to Prof. CURTIS a vote of thanks for his interesting and instructive exercise.

Rev. Mr. PRADT opened the discussion upon the topic, "How can the teachers' profession be rendered more respected, and less precarious?" He said that the second point was embraced in the first. The first inquiry to be made is: Is there a teacher's profession? If there is not, the first step to be taken is to make the teachers's calling a true profession. When this is done, the teacher's position will at once be less precarious. Another important means is to secure proper organization. We had a loose sort of organization, called the State Teachers' Association, but it was ephemeral. It should be made a permanent organization, with corporate rights and powers. Another means is the establishment of profes-

sional schools of didactics. It is true that we already have Normal schools, but they do not go far enough. The teacher should be as thoroughly prepared for his work as the physician or clergyman. The ability to teach did not come to any man by intuition.

Prof. McGregor, of Platteville, continued the discussion. He said that a simple statement of propositions was all that was needed. He was not prepared to say that teachers were not respected. He thought they were, but if their position could be rendered less unstable they would be more respected.

Another reason is the fickleness of District Boards. Fault is found with the teacher, whispered at first, finally the Board is enlisted and the position made uncomfortable.

Another reason sometimes assigned is inadequacy of salary, but he thought that that as a general rule the teachers were receiving all that they earned. When teachers fitted themselves to earn more, salaries would be higher.

Another reason is that in most districts school is kept not to exceed five months. The teachers therefore must seek other employment for a part of the year. The first remedy is to seek teachers of maturer years. The law now allows a certificate to be issued to all persons over 16; he proposed that State certificates be issued to persons who have successfully and successively taught in the same place for five years. It might be a visionary suggestion, but would it not be well for our villages to build a house for the teacher, as churches build a parsonage for the preacher. He endorsed the view of Mr. Pradt favoring a closer organization for mutual support. He did not advocate strikes, but he would cultivate a greater *espirit du corps*. There ought to be in every Assembly district a teachers' association, holding three or four meetings a year.

The great want is ability. We all admire ability, bow to ability, and respect abitity, although we may not admire the channel into which it has turned its energies.

[Messrs. North, Chandler, Chipman, Holford and others, made forcible remarks upon the subject, sustaining the general views taken by the other gentlemen, but it was we presume, in the reporter's absence, as we do not find a sketch of them.]

Mr. Reynolds thought that this want of professional spirit among teachers is due to the fact that, from Maine to Florida, no teacher knows at the end of the school year where he is to be the next year. Boards of education are apt to be arbitrary and discharge teachers upon mere whims, so that no one feels that he has any certain tenure of office.

Adjourned until 3 P. M.

AFTERNOON SESSION, Dec. 31.

Meeting called to order by Pres. Reynolds.

After various remarks by different individuals, the meeting adjourned *sine die*.

B. M. REYNOLDS, *President.*

J. Q. Emery, *Secretary.*

CONVENTION OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS.

The County Superintendents of Schools met in Annual Session in Madison, Monday evening, Dec. 29, 1873.

Hon. Samuel Fallows was unanimously called to the chair, and George Skewes, of Racine county, was chosen Secretary.

On calling the roll of Superintendents and Superintendents elect, the following were found to be present:

Alex. F. North,	Geo. Skewes,
A. A. Spencer,	I. N. Stewart,
Thos. Malone,	W. J. Waggoner,
W. H. Holford,	J. H. Terry,
LeRoy J. Burlingame,	S. A. Craig,
Theo. S. Chipman,	W. H. Chandler,
J. B. Tracy,	D. H. Morgan,
W. B. Minaghan,	J. S. Foley,
O. B. Wyman,	M. H. Lynch,
Michael Kirwan,	P. Flanagan,
A. O. Wright,	A. E. Howard,
M. J. Frawley,	W. H. Peck,
W. J. Johnson.	J. T. Flavin.

Gen. FALLOWS introduced Hon. EDWARD SEARING, State Superintendent elect.

On motion of W. H. CHANDLER, the meeting adjourned for the evening to meet in joint session with the Executive Session of the State Teachers' Association.

TUESDAY MORNING, Dec. 30.

C. E. Mears, of Polk county, not being present, the subject assigned him, "Township system to be made compulsory," was omitted, and J. H. Terry, of Sauk county, read a paper on extending the time of county certificates. He would have the present first grade certificates done away with, as they nearly approach the five years' state certificate, and make the present second grade certificate answer for the first grade with two years' duration; the second as the third now stands, and for a third the same as for the second, but with a lower standing.

Michael Kirwan objected to this change, and preferred to change the state certificates, uniting the present second grade and limited five years' certificates.

Alex. F. North objected to the first grade certificates being granted for the term of three years, as it might remove a number of teachers from the examinations of the incoming Superintendent.

W. H. Holford would grant third grades for six months, and second grades for eighteen months, and first grades for two years.

Theo. S. Chipman would grant third grades for one year, second grades for two years, and first grades for three years.

I. N. Stewart concurred with Mr. North in that first grade certificates be granted but for two years.

On motion, the subject was referred to a committee of three. The chair appointed Alex. F. North, chairman, W. H. Chandler and Michael Kirwan.

A. O. Wright being absent, the subject "Increase of School Fund" was passed over and A. F. North called on to speak to the subject: "Change of the time of electing County Superintendent."

He would not change the time but let political parties be responsible for the men they selected to fill this important office.

W. H. Chandler would take the matter out of politics altogether, and place the appointing power in the hands of the State Superintendent.

Mr. North moved that the subject be dropped. Motion prevailed.

"School Visitation" was spoken upon by W. H. Chandler. School visitation should be attended by a careful collation of facts and statistics. He takes notes on matters worthy of mention and publishes them in the paper of his district. He works with the children by talking to them about what is desirable to have in the school room and having them appeal to their parents for those improvements which their superintendent says they ought to have. Made some suggestion about not condemning school houses, as the better sentiment should prevail that it would be a disgrace to any district in having its school building condemned.

A. F. North approved of what was said by the last speaker. Would approve of visiting schools at least one-half of a day at a time; also considered it a good time to arrive at the real statistics of the district.

J. H. Terry would do more, by leaving the situation of affairs in the district, and making an acquaintance of the people and their condition and needs.

D. H. Morgan would give special attention to the surroundings of buildings.

Mr. Kirwan reminded us of the difficulties in school visitation. Too many schools cannot receive the attention they should. Hurried visits must be made, or some of the schools be neglected in larger counties.

W. H. Chandler visited the poorest class of teachers first, leaving those whom he could trust until he could reach them in his own good time.

A. A. Spencer said that after the superintendent has gone over the ground and knows the condition of the schools, a short call will often do more good than a longer one, by making suggestions directly on the difficulties apparent, which, if made after remaining in the school room for half a day or more, would seem more personal than if done at once. He takes statistics and compares them with town clerks' reports.

W. B. Minaghan said much might be done through the personal influence of the superintendent, through lectures, etc.

J. L. Foley would note first the condition of schools and surroundings, then visitation of patrons in the district; made objections to the issuing of printed circulars suggesting improvements, as they were disregarded, and often considered by district meetings as impertinent in reminding *them* of their duties.

A. E. Howard approved of circulars as they had effected good in his county.

J. H. Terry and others warmly approved of sending out circulars recommending improvements to district boards and annual meetings.

Gec. Skewes spoke on "School Diary and Reports;" he would have superintendents use some approved uniform diary or note book, and thought teachers should report monthly, and also at the close of the term of school, on monthly report cards and note books provided for that purpose, so that the statistics of the several districts might be corrected as far as possible from them.

A. O. Wright would give attention to particulars more for his own information, than for the purpose of correcting reports for the Superintendent's office.

"Additional Powers of County Superintendents," was considered by D. H. Morgan. After enumerating powers of superintendents, would give additional power to change text books, and remove one class to another if it should be deemed proper.

W. H. Chandler would give the superintendent the power to compel attendance on Institutes, inasmuch as the State provides for and defrays their expenses, and said the lack of interest on the part of teachers in attending these institutes and teachers's associations was discouraging.

Prof. Graham suggested to superintendents that a specific statement of what is to be done in an institute be published two weeks before the holding of same in order to give teachers a chance to prepare themselves for the work. That four branches should be so specified and what is to be done in each. Would give five per cent. additional standing on account of actual attendance on the institute. Would have the State Superintendent publish names of all County Superindents holding institutes, with number attending, also the number not holding institutes.

W. H. Chandler brought all of his teachers to the institutes by combining them with the examinations of three days duration.

On motion, meeting adjourned until two o'clock.

TUESDAY, P. M.— Meeting called to order at 2:20. Gen. Fallows in the chair.

After roll call, W. H. Holford read a paper on "Town Superintendency."

On invitation of Prof. McGregor, meeting adjourned to meet in joint session with Convention of Teachers.

FIVE O'CLOCK, P. M.—Called to order by Supt. Fallows. Discussion immediately followed on "Change of number of days of school month."

Mr. Burlingame led by reading a paper relative to this point, favoring twenty days to the school month, or, if teaching twenty-two days, that the teacher be allowed to teach on Saturdays, so that the school month shall close within the calendar month.

A. F. North recommended that twenty days school work be considered a legal school month.

Theo. S. Chipman would have the

teacher work as many days per month as a laborer in any other profession.

I. N. Stewart, A. A. Spencer and A. O. Wright would have five days in the week and twenty days per month.

W. H. Chandler would have the district board contract with the teacher for what might be agreeable to both board and teacher and abide by the same.

Michael Kirwan would have a definite law on this subject, thus ending so much difficulty growing out of the law as it now reads.

After deliberate discussion, the following resolution, offered by Le Roy J. Burlingame, with slight amendment, was adopted:

Resolved, by the County and City Superintendents, in Convention assembled, That twenty days actual work, and not more than five days in any one week should constitute a legal school month, and that a committee of three be appointed by the chair to lay the same before the Educational Legislative committee, during the present session of the Legislature and to labor for the passage of such a bill.

The chair appointed Messrs. Rev. J. B. Pradt, I. N. Stewart, L. J. Burlingame.

The next subject taken up was "Teachers Institutes and County Academies."

O. J. Taylor spoke of the present valuable institute gatherings of the State; recommended that a programme should be printed and sent out to the teachers giving them due time for preparation. He believed in institute work and thought it the best and most efficient means of raising the standard of teachers.

I. N. Stewart heartily approved of institute work, and recommended that very much more of this work be done in the State.

A. O. Wright would recommend a week's institute to be held in every part of the county, and followed by an examination, thus giving all an opportunity to attend some one of these meetings.

W. H. Chandler spoke at some length in favor of the institute work now being carried on in the State.

Meeting adjourned to meet at half-past seven o'clock, p. m.

Evening session called to order by Gen. Fallows, at 7:30.

A. F. North opened the discussion on County Academies, warmly urging the necessity of institutions of this kind to supply the missing link to make the proper connection in the educational agencies of our State, it would meet a want in supplying our schools with practical teachers.

I. N. Stewart endorsed all said by the last speaker, and added that the conducting of these County Academies would be an open field for the labor of students and graduates of our Normal Schools, and inquired of the practibility of building these Normal Academies.

Rev. J. B. Pradt spoke of the way in which our funds are obtained, and the use made of them, and what might be done with them to better advantage in favoring this project. He spoke very favorably of this movement and of the necessity for it to supply our higher institutions of learning with a better class of students, and to take out so much of the primary work as in new done by them.

The subject was very thoroughly discussed by most of the members present, all favoring the work. The following resolution was offered and adopted:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Convention that the establishment of the County Academies is approved, and that a committee of three be appointed consisting of Messrs. J. H Terry, W. H. Chandler and W. J. Waggoner to bring this subject before the legislature.

"Examination of Teachers" was spoken upon by A. O. Wright; he showed the value of public examinations, would have applicants for such write as long on thorough questions as is required in the public examinations. The subject was participated in at length by nearly all the convention.

The following resolution was introduced by W. H. Chandler, and unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That in the judgement of this convention, the district boards of the several school districts of this State should be required to furnish the teachers employed by them, a blank book suitable for the enrollment of all attendants upon the respective schools under their charge, and that each teacher should be required to enroll the scholars attending each year, so that it would clearly show:

1st. The name of each scholar attending school during the year.

2d. The age of each scholar attending school during the year.

3d. The number of days each scholar has attended school during each of the months the school has been in session during the year.

4th. A classification of the attendants, so that all between the ages of 4 and 7, 7 and 15, 15 and 20, should be clearly shown.

At the close of the session A. F. North offered the following resolution which was heartily endorsed by every member of the convention:

Resolved, By the County Superintendents of the State of Wisconsin in session at Madison, that the Hon Samuel Fallows, in removing from our State, has our warmest wishes for his success in his new vocation, and our sincere thanks for the kind and courteous attention shown to us at all times, and the warm sympathy he has uniformly had with us in our work.

After a few brief words the convention adjourned, closing a very pleasant session in which good work had been done, and the members dispersed, feeling strengthened and encouraged by the interview.

SAMUEL FALLOWS, President.
GEO. SKEWES, Secretary.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE AT SCHOOL.

The report of the committee of the Assembly of 1871, upon compulsory attendance of children at school, was a remarkable document by reason of showing everything which those desiring light knew before, and omitting the issue made by those who have endeavored to make the schools more efficient and comprehensive by securing the attendance of children now growing up in idleness and ignorance. The report showed that the voluntary system in Wisconsin effected the attendance of fifty per cent. more persons than the compulsory law of Germany secured, and it argued that no compulsory law could be operated in Wisconsin, because a large majority of citizens would deem its operation an infringement of personal liberty. The report said that the actual school attendance of all inhabitants of the countries named was as follows:

In Italy, 6 per cent. of all.
In Ireland, 8½ per cent. of all.
In France, 10 per cent. of all.
In England, 11 per cent. of all.
In Scotland, 14 per cent. of all.
In Denmark, 13 per cent. of all.
In Norway and Sweden, 13 per ct. of all.
In Holland, 14 per cent. of all.
In Germany and Switzerland, 18 per cent. of all.
In Wisconsin, 29 per cent. of all.

These results were quite satisfactory; but the question in America is, how to reach the large number of youth who do not attend school, and this question was not touched by the Assembly report. In 1870 there were 34,000 youth of school age in Wisconsin, who did not attend school, and more than 3,000,000 such in the United States, according to the report from the National Bureau of Education for 1870. What shall be done for this one person in every eight — not one child in every eight children, but one person in every eight persons, young and old, who never attend school, is the question that arrests the attention of the philanthropist and economist.

Massachusetts has met this questien and practically solved it, and the law in that commonwealth seems to meet every objection which can be raised to the theory of compulsory attendance. Living under the severe teachings which discarded everything that trammeled individual freedom, accustomed to independent thought and action, yet her people found it necessary to do more than merely supply public schools, and they have put into successful operation, a system of compulsory attendance which doubtless makes many good citizens of the youth,

otherwise supported by government, at an early or late day, as paupers and criminals.

The Secretary of the Massachusetts Board for 1870, said: "Our system of compulsory attendance was very carefully and gradually introduced or it would have failed, as the attempt to introduce it will be likely to fail in other States without similar caution, and especially in respect to popular prejudice. It now works wishout opposition or complaint, with the happiest results, whenever there are proper agents to devise wise methods and to execute the provisions of the law." The question, therefore, is made a demand for wisdom on the part of State and local authorities in carrying a compulsory law into effect. And back of this recognition, it seems unnecessary to go, since 3,000,000 children are not educated with present appliances and since property holders are taxed to educate the whole school-going population as well as to educate a fraction thereof; hence it is a right of the childless tax payer to demand the attendance of the children at the school which his revenue supports, in order to carry into effect the boasted theory of education, that schools indirectly protect the property thus taxed.

It is in no way intended to intimate that local or State school authorities have not done the best their wisdom could devise for education; but it is thought that the same wisdom should now come to the rescue, and either supplement the system or remodel it, in the light which we have, endeavoring to improve the schools as they are, and gradually but firmly to unite the common schools, the normal schools and the university, into one system, having for its object the education of every child in the land, to the full measure of his capacity and inclination,—indicated by a course of study, which shall be wrought in part, but surely by the public school, and thence prosecuted, not by accident, but surely by the university, and carried forward to a definite result; the normal schools mean time, possessing sufficient relays of students coming from thoroughly organized high schools to do normal work, which shall again reciprocally aid the primary schools.

Every thoughtful man has talked of these matters from year to year, until now it seems opportune to put the thought in form and to ask for just the system in the State, which many cities already possess, and which, in the language of NEWTON BATEMAN, in speaking of the county superintendency, has "almost revolutionized some countries in respect to schools and education." That system puts at its head a competent Board of Education which looks after all the schools of every kind. This Board should be sufficiently large to insure wisdom, and yet so limited in number as to act efficiently upon the decision made by that wisdom, and whose duty it shall be to supervise the whole educational work of the State, and to direct local authorities on general principles only. Let us have the State Board of Education and then the compulsory law of attendance.

***

TEACHERS.—As a last suggestion to your meeting, but not least in importance, let me urge care in the selection of your teacher. If you engage a teacher for the year, as it is most desirable that you should, it is a matter of the highest importance to you that he should possess the best qualifications that your money can command. Make use of every means in your reach to ascertain how industrious, how energetic, how exemplary in morals—in a word how successful a teacher he is. Careful deliberation and inquiry, and not hasty action, should be the rule to guide you in the employment of a teacher. There are many persons who teach more or less but who lack most ot the essentials of a good teacher. They have not been taught by refusal of employment that their first duty is to secure the requisite qualifications of a teacher.—*J. H. Terry.*

OFFICIAL DEPARTMENT.

OFFICIAL OPINIONS.

Prepared by the Assistant Superintendent.

SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

Q. Does the alteration of a district take any effect, until the notice of the same required by section 11 is filed?

A. The requirement to file the notice is only directory, and for information, and not something necessary to give validity to the previous act, but it should nevertheless be done promptly, as required by law.

Q. If the alteration (taking effect immediately) transfers the district clerk to another district, should the notice be filed with him?

A. No, with his successor, as soon as appointed; the old clerk ceases to be clerk as soon as the transfer is made.

Q. Can the town board alter a school district which was created by act of legislature?

A. Yes, unless some other way of altering it or some restriction upon its alteration is embodied in the act.

ANNUAL MEETING.

Q. How soon must the vote to change the annual meeting from September to August be filed with the town clerk?

A. It should be filed without delay lest it be forgotten; but if filed any time before the six days notice of the annual meeting which are to be given, it will answer the purpose.

Q. If a year passes away without the filing and the district meets as usual in September, can it then be done?

A. It may still be done, but in this case great care should be taken to give notice of the fact, and of the change effected thereby, in the time for holding the annual meeting.

Q. Is it legal for a district to hold its annual meeting the second Monday in July? Some do, I notice, and it is more convenient.

A. It is not legal, unless a graded school of two or more departments, is maintained in the district, then the meeting must be held at that time. There are some good reasons why all annual school meetings should be held then, but the law has not yet so provided.

DISTRICT BOARD AND OFFICERS.

Q. Can the clerk and director legally hire the director's wife to teach the school a meeting of the board having been called?

A. This must be considered inadmissible. If a near relative of any member of the board is ever hired, it should be by the other two members and only when it will give general satisfaction in the district. Real or seeming favoritism in hiring teachers is a prolific source of discontent and ill feeling. A man cannot make a contract of this nature, with his own wife.

Q. If a treasurer's bond is approved by the director and left with him for the clerk to approve, will his approval be sufficient if not given until after the ten days expire?

A. The law is not complied with unless the bond is actually filed with the clerk within ten days, with the approval of both director and clerk. Any failure in this creates a vacancy, to be filled by appointment.

HIRING THE TEACHER.

Q. The district voted to have a male teacher, but the board, from motives of economy, hired a female teacher. Is the district responsible for her wages, or the board?

A. The board is responsible, as it had no legal power to hire a female teacher; but it may be equitable for the district to recognize the action of the board if they have had a good school, and the children have attended as usual.

Q. Our school was taught the first month on a contract, signed by two members of the board, but without any previous meeting of the board. Is it legal to pay for the month, the district having voted in favor of it?

A. The vote of the district does not

legalize the contract, but if the other member of the board assented afterwards, it will be proper to pay for the month's teaching. Such irregularities however should be carefully avoided.

RIGHTS OF TEACHERS, PARENTS AND CHILDREN.

Q. If a school board closes the school for a week or two, on account of sickness, must the teacher lose his time?

A. Not unless he consents to.

Q. Has a teacher a right to punish a scholar, if forbidden by its parents?

A. The prohibition of the parent has no legal effect. No individual parent can dictate as to the discipline of the school. Of course a reasonable request or suggestion should be respectfully considered.

Q. Will you tell me what section of the school law gives a teacher a right to punish?

A. The school law does not create the right—it grows out of the teacher's office, which is in part, to govern the school, and by common law, such reasonable punishment may be inflicted as is necessary to this end. But it is not to be forgotten that punishment should be the last resort, and that it may often be sufficient to punish, without using the rod, by restraint, by deprivation of privileges, etc.

Q. Has the parent, or teacher, a right to dictate what studies the child shall pursue?

A. Strictly speaking neither. The board has the power to prescribe the course of study and the pupil must conform to it, according to announcement. If the board leaves it all to the teacher, he is the judge rather than the parent, as to the studies and classification of the pupil, but should listen respectfully to the parent's suggestions. It is to be remembered that a public school is not a private school, and parents who send to it have individually no legal right to dictate to the board or teacher.

Q. If young men who have no legal residence in the district persist in coming to school, without being admitted by the board, can the board turn them out?

A. It is not best to put them out by force, but if they disturb the school, after being told they cannot be recognized as pupils, the remedy is pointed out in Section 140 of the School Code.

Q. Our teacher has no government; the scholars whistle, sing, and in short do as they please. Some of them have left, and the teacher is willing to quit, but her father won't let her. What shall we do?

Q. Pay off the teacher and discharge her, if she is unable to keep the school. Her father can recover nothing in such a case.

Q. Can foreign scholars, admitted at the beginning of the term, and paying tuition in advance be excluded before the term closes, because the district voted at a special meeting, to rescind the privilege of admission?

A. The board is bound by the vote of the district in this matter. The admission of the pupil at the beginning of the term, and the payment of tuition does not create an absolute right to remain till the end of the term, if the district votes as mentioned. The number of children belonging to the district may be found so large as to require that others be excluded. If this is done, the balance of tuition should of course be paid back. (See Section 19, sub-section 11.)

Q. A young lady, over 20, belonging in the district, wished to attend school, but the board exclude her; can they do so legally?

A. If authorized by the district, they can at their discretion admit such pupils, but are not obliged to. They are to consider first the "accommodation and instruction" of the pupils of school age, and should admit none others if that will be interfered with by so doing. (See previous question and answer.)

Q. In case of a deaf and dumb child, which cannot be instructed in the public schools, what course can be taken?

A. Write to Geo. L. Weed, Principal of the Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, at Delavan, Wis.

Q. How are pauper children supported within the bounds of a district, to be regarded?

A. Under Chap. 156, Gen. Laws of 1873 (p. 16, School Code), they are to be considered residents of the district, for school purposes, and the proportionate amount of the expense of instructing such as attend school is to be defrayed by the county or town board, as the case may require.

Q. Cannot religion be taught to the children one hour each day, as well as a foreign language?

A. It is not the province of the public schools to teach religion, if by that is meant any special religious dogmas. The Constitution forbids "sectarian instruction." This is not intended, however, to forbid teaching children, by precept and example, to "fear God and do right."

A COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT should induce parents to visit the schools; he should inspect the premises and outbuildings; he should examine the school records and see that they are properly kept; he should inspect the text books of the pupils to see that they are neatly preserved; he should give especial attention to the system of government; he should see that the programmes of recitation and study are carried out; he should criticise the methods of instruction; he should breathe into the teachers' meetings the breath of life; this will require some lung power and far more brain power. As the source of the fountain gauges its height, so the Superintendent's mental altitude gauges the general level of these gatherings. The topics in these meetings should be a careful review of the work to be done by the several grades with special attention as to those points in any branch which will be of practical utility, drill upon subjects upon which teachers are deficient.—*Sam'l Shaw.*

EDITORIAL MISCELLANY.

To the readers of the JOURNAL *and the friends of Education generally throughout the State:*

In entering upon the duties of the office to which the suffrages of the people of Wisconsin have unexpectedly elected me, it is proper, and it may be anticipated, that I should, in this issue of the JOURNAL, present some more or less formal words of greeting. These are alike due to the JOURNAL from its new editor and to the educational interests of the State from its new Superintendent.

Called to the office after a distinguished line of able and successful men, and from thoughts and pursuits largely different from the duties now before me, it is with some diffidence that I have ventured to assume responsibilities so grave and which have been so well borne by my predecessors.

A profound interest, however, in the cause of education, to which I years ago devoted my life, and the belief that an honest and faithful attempt on my part to serve that cause in our State will receive the sympathy and support of all its true friends, encourage me to hope for such a measure of success as may at least be due to earnest purposes and to industry.

I come into office when the condition of our State, educationally, is encouraging. There has been much recent progress, and I believe there is now going on a healthy growth in public interest and in the conditions of general instruction. Considering her age, Wisconsin probably has as good a record in this direction as any of her sister States.

But we should not be deceived by this into the belief that we are in all things pursuing the best methods, that our results are absolutely and wholly good, that there is not still need of much wisdom and labor and patience in a search for better things. Indeed, I see so much yet to be gained, that it seems to me the battle is not half won.

Let us not, in our search for the truth, look at other States, no more or even less advanced than this. Let us rather intelligently and candidly observe the facts in our own.

The public schools, especially in the country districts, are still to a large extent confessedly poor. The teachers are young, inexperienced, untrained, and are perpetually changing. Teaching is almost universally regarded as a merely temporary expedient. School buildings are inconvenient, unattractive, and ill ventilated. Attendance is very irregular. A diversity of text-books creates unnecessary confusion and weakness in the schools, and imposes unnecessary burdens upon the people. In many portions of the State there is a lack of local higher schools which should serve to stimulate those beneath them—the district schools, and to feed those above them—the University and the Normal Schools. From this and other causes the Normal Schools are obliged to do much work out of their legitimate sphere of professional training, and the University is not yet emancipated from a real or fancied necessity for giving preparatory instruction.

These are some of the less satisfactory features of our condition. They are unquestionably to a considerable extent due to the youthfulness of our State; but need we leave their reformation wholly to time? Cannot some of them be improved by wise legislation? Believing that they can, I shall in due time urge, with what I hope may be a proper union of boldness and caution, certain measures of remedial legislation.

But the defects I have mentioned are partly such as no legislation can remedy. Their cure lies in a more enlightened public opinion, in a denser population, and greater aggregate wealth. Time, and the earnest, persistent efforts of the enlightened friends of popular culture, through the press and from the platform, will bring the desired change. Here is work and here is duty for professional teachers, individually and collectively, for editors, preachers, lecturers,—for all who love republican institutions.

To what extent this is duty, witness the present condition of society in our Southern States,—witness the beginnings of an unenlightened and dangerous Communism in the great cities of our Northern States.

No people can long govern themselves unless they are both enlightened and virtuous. Spain, without the requisite conditions, has just tried self-government and so far has failed. France has so failed at least three times. Are we, in the light of history, reasonably sure of our stability as a Republic? Less than twenty-four hours ago there sat, in the vacant chair now opposite me as I write, a man educated in the best schools of Germany, but long resident in this country,—a scholar, a thoughtful, shrewd man of affairs,—who assured me it was his belief that our "experiment" could not possibly outlast another century. To hear an expression of such sentiments from similar sources is no uncommon experience.

I have better hopes of the Republic, but those hopes are based on nothing except the universal and progressive culture of the masses of our people,—culture both intellectual and moral.

Teachers, Friends of Education, there are duties before us to which, as we value our country, our institutions, the heritage of our children, we must prove true. Let our words be earnest and hopeful and wise, but let our deeds be stronger and better than our words. E. S.

THIS NUMBER of the JOURNAL exhibits less variety than will its successors. A good deal of space is necessarily taken up with the Papers and Proceedings of the Educational Meetings. We design to add some new features to the JOURNAL which will appear in due time.

Our new dress, we hope, will please our readers. We have adopted the double

column, as being more economical in space and easier for the eye. We are using new type and a fine article of paper, and intend that the contents of the JOURNAL shall accord with its improved appearance. To this end we ask the aid of our friends in the way both of contributions and additions to the subscription list.

Various circumstances have delayed the issue of this number, but we shall make efforts to get back again to the first of the month, as the time of publication.

THE MEETINGS IN DECEMBER.

The gathering of teachers during the holiday week was especially noticeable, for its comprehensive and practical character. The various educational institutions of the State were more generally represented than at similar meetings heretofore and the papers and discussions were unusually able and searching; to which it may be added that a vein of good common sense was generally apparent, and but little riding of hobbies. President REYNOLDS is entitled to much credit for his skill and industry in getting up so good a programme. We have begun the publication of the papers presented, and shall continue it in future numbers. From the minutes of the Secretary, Mr. EMERY, and from the excellent report in the State Journal, by Dr. CARPENTER, we are able to present a very full account of the proceedings.

The convention of county superintendents was more fully attended than could have been expected, when so many were going out of office and so many new ones coming in. The proceedings, a tolerably full account of which we are able to give, were eminently practical, and will be read with interest.

It will be seen from the sketch of the debates in both meetings that there is a growing sentiment in favor of something to supply the "missing link" between the common and graded schools on the one side, and the normal schools and the university, we may add all the colleges—on the other. Dr. CHAPIN, President of Beloit College, Dr. CARPENTER, of the university, and A. F. NORTH, retiring superintendent of Waukesha county, among others, were emphatic upon this point — the need of county academies.

The other great want of our system, that is, some sort of town organization, is also more and more felt, and the conviction is growing that it must ere long be placed upon the statute book as a positive and not merely a permissory feature of our school laws.

"Compulsory attendance upon school" met with little favor, the speakers generally regarding such a measure as unnecessary or inexpedient, at present.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS. — Of the sixty-three gentlemen elected for the next term — 1874–5, twenty-three were incumbents during the previous term, and ten, namely, BURLINGAME, of Columbia, CHANDLER, of Dane, 1st district, MORGAN, of Green, SPENCER, of Green Lake, KIRWAN, of Manitowoc, GREENE, of Marathon, FOLEY, of Milwaukee, 2d district, MEARS, of Polk, REGENFUSS, of Washington and CHIPMAN, of Waushara, had served more than one term. Messrs. MALONE, of Racine, LUNN, of Sauk, and BALLARD, of Walworth, had been a short time in office by appointment, while Messrs. KENYON, of Juneau, AXTELL, of Pepin, STEWART, of Waukesha, and BURNHAM, of Waupaca, had formerly served a term or two. The remaining thirty-three, more than half, are new to the business.

We recently had the pleasure of spending a day in one of the best regulated Normal Schools in this or any other State. The place was Whitewater. The day, as fate willed, was the anniversary of the Boston Tea Party. In addition to the usual exercises, more or less under the inspiration of Minerva, we were unexpectedly and pleasantly regaled with a favor direct from the Muses, to whom

perpetual and very acceptable sacrifice must be offered from that favored temple of learning. If this is in any sense enigmatical, its meaning will be seen in another column, where, indeed, the seeker will find much more than a mere explanation.

We have read with much interest the reports, reaching this country from time to time during the past year, of the discovery, by Dr. HENRY SCHLIEMANN, of the veritable site of ancient Troy and the unearthing therein of sundry works of art which the Doctor proclaimed to belong to the regal treasures of Priam. This discovery, if genuine, would entitle Dr. SCHLIEMANN to rank with LAYARD and DI CESNOLI, and would win for him the enthusiastic gratitude of all lovers of Homer and Virgil.

A recent German announcement informs us that the Doctor has in preparation a book upon his excavations in Troy, which will contain a photographic atlas of 216 plates representing his discoveries. It is stated that no less than 8,750 different objects, golden prisms, coins, cylinders, rings, beads, etc., and called by him the "Treasury of Priam," were found in a large silver vase. It is further stated that "all the photographs are being prepared under his direction in Athens. Meanwhile the printing of the German as well as of the French text is going forward in Leipsic without delay, so that the appearance of his work, anxiously expected by archæologists, can be looked for at no distant date."

To all this we simply say that we fear it is too good to be true.

WE have received from Dr. J. W. HOYT, now in Europe, a copy of a neat little pamphlet entitled "Celebration of the Ninety-seventh Anniversary American Independence at the 'Blumen-Saele,' in Vienna, Austria, July 4th, 1873." The celebration was originated and planned by a number of American Commissioners and exhibitors who were in attendance at the Universal Exposition, and appears to have been a decidedly successful and pleasant affair.

Among the speakers at the close of the banquet was Dr. HOYT, who responded to the Fifteenth Regular Toast, on "Education, the Security of our National Future." We shall try to find space in our next issue of the JOURNAL for the eloquent and logical speech made on the occasion by our distinguished fellow-citizen.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.—We learn from the President, S. H. WHITE, of Peoria, Ill., that the Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association will be held in Detroit, Mich., on the 4th, 5th and 6th days of August, 1874. The Governor of the State, the Mayor of the City, the State and City Superintendents of Public Instruction, and the Board of Education of the city of Detroit, have extended a very cordial invitation to the Association to meet in that place. Free use of assembly halls has been proffered, and announcements concerning programme, facilities for travel, hotel accommodations, etc., will be made in due season.

A CHANCE TO DO GOOD.—The Superintendent of the Industrial School for Boys has opened a Reading Room for them, and asks contributions. He says: "About forty volumes of very suitable books—eight magazines and some dozen papers have been furnished by the Secretary of the Board of Managers and the Superintendent of the School. These constituted Christmas Presents on the day the Room was opened, and we most respectfully but earnestly invite all friends of education to aid in this enterprise. If you wish to do a lasting good at small expense, please furnish this Reading Room with some good book, magazine or paper, or give us the means to purchase one. All the reading should be carefully selected. A

cabinet of natural curiosities would add materially to the attractive, refining and elevating influence of the Reading Room, and constitute a rare source of enjoyment and permanent good to these wayward sons of Wisconsin." Contributions may be addressed to A. D. HENDRICKSON, Superintendent, Waukesha, Wis.

WAUSHARA COUNTY.—A correspondent says: The schools in Waushara county are at work with energy. Teachers seem to be inquiring for better methods of teaching and governing, and making their schools what they ought to be. An association has of late been formed for the western part of the county, which meets once in two weeks and gives promise of being of great benefit. The meetings are well attended and interesting. H. W. ROOD is its President, and OWEN MUNZER, Secretary. We are also sustaining an Educational column in our county paper. Our excellent superintendent, THEO. S. CHIPMAN, now serving his fourth term, is doing much to raise the standard of teachers, by holding County Normal Institutes twice in each year, and by attending to the interests of our schools generally.

MANITOWOC. (The Joint District.)—Our schools are in a flourishing condition under the able supervision of HOSEA BARNS, Esq., and his assistants Miss M. Frances Barr, Miss Anna Cuddy, Mrs. Carrie Green, Miss Ella Sackett, Miss Annie Burnet, Miss Jennie Hodges, Miss Fannie O'Connor, and the kind motherly Mrs. E. M. Barns. JOHN LANTRY, Clerk.

ROCHESTER SEMINARY.—The Principal of this flourishing school, J. H. GOULD, informs us that the winter term opened Dec. 16, under very favorable auspices.

ANY man who attempts to live a Christian life, no matter what his creed, is my brother, and one house is large enough for both of us.

*** BOSTON TEA PARTY.**

BY MRS. H. F. G. AREY.

Tune — "Auld Lang Syne."

One hundred years to-day, dear friends,
One hundred years to-day,
The tea that made a nation strong
Was steeped in Boston Bay.

When Britain, with harsh laws, pursued
Our course o'er sea and land,
And on her stalwart exiles laid
Oppression's iron hand,
We spurned indignant from our shore
Her taxes and her teas,
And back to haughty England bore,
Defiance on the breeze.

(Chorus).

A century since to-day, dear friends,
A century since to-day,
The tea that made a nation's strength
Was steeped in Boston Bay.

We taught our English lips to sing
Proud anthems of the free;
And, deep in Boston's harbor, steeped
That glorious cup of tea.
It swelled our hearts, it fired our veins
With ecstasies divine,
And served through weary years of war,
In place of bread and wine.

[Chorus.]

Where'er the path of honor leads
We follow with a will;
It stirs our sturdy exile race
To deeds of valor still.
We snuff it in the morning breeze,
We taste it when we sup,
And Boston harbor still holds out
Her stimulating cup.

[Chorus.]

In thinking of those rare old days
We'll cast all chains aside,
And crush from out the land's highways
Corruption, power, and pride.
We'll sing with unpolluted lip
The anthems of the free,
And many an hundred years we'll sip
Old Boston's cup of tea.

[Chorus.]

* This song was sung with no little zest by the pupils of the Whitewater (Wis.) Normal School on Tuesday, the 16th Dec.

LIFE is a book of which we can have but one edition. Let each day's actions as they add their pages to the indestructible volume, be such as we shall be willing to have an assembled world read.

OTHER STATES.

MAINE.—The State Educational Association met at Waterville, the last week in November. The energetic and admirable State Superintendent, Mr. JOHNSON, propounded the educational policy of the State for the last six years, as: 1st, better instruction; 2d, efficient supervision; 3d, sufficient and permanent revenue; 4th, the obligatory education of every child. There is a whole volume of wisdom and logic in this *order*. Prof. F. A. ALLEN, (of Pennsylvania,) has finished a third institute campaign in the State. His experience in this work has been larger probably than that of any other man, and where he goes once he is called again.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. — Institutes have been vigorously pushed here also. The late State Superintendent, Hon. J. W. SIMONDS, has been working in that field personally, with great success, but unfortunately goes out of office now. The "town system" is earnestly advocated, and will soon be adopted we think.

MASSACHUSETTS received, at the Vienna Exposition, a "Diploma of Honor," the highest prize for education. The old Bay State is always in the van.

RHODE ISLAND, the last New England State to have a public common school system, is one of the first in the energy and wisdom of her development of the system. Evening schools are a marked feature. O. FARNUM, then teaching for $24 a month, and boarding himself, opened one in North Providence in 1832-3. Now they are quite common. —The 29th Annual Meeting of the Institute of Instruction (State Teachers' Association.) will be held in Providence, Jan. 22-4. Commissioner EATON will deliver an address. —The State Normal School re-opened two years ago under Prof. J. C. GREEOUGH, is very successful.

CONNECTICUT.—The State Teachers' Association held at Hartford in November, was well attended and was favored with an address from HENRY WARD BEECHER, on universal education, who took strong ground for compulsory school attendance. Hazing and secret societies are the subject of fierce controversy at Yale.

NEW YORK.—The Dean of Canterbury (Eng.) in visiting the public schools of Albany was astonished to find so many lady teachers, and that they succeeded so well.—The city superintendent of Rochester reports against corporal punishment, but 1200 out of 1250, principals of grammar schools in the city of New York, recommend its restoration there.—The editor of the State Educational Journal goes against Business Colleges, not in the abstract, but as they are at present. Speaking of our educational work generally, he says, "We crowd through our education, and rush into active life, just at the time Europeans think they are ready to begin the study of a profession." We propose to reprint the article for its good points.—The investigation growing out of the death of Leggett, at Cornell, has brought to light a state of absolute barbarism around that Institution, that must expose it to general indignation, if not removed. The faculty have already taken decisive action, to this end.

OHIO.—The editor of the National Teacher notices a judicious plan of oral instruction in simpler elements of natural science in the public schools of Toledo, and excellent results in teaching reading by taking special pains to bring out the feeling as well as the thought.—Supt. HANCOCK, of Cincinnati, at a meeting of the "Friends of Inquiry," in that city, advocated the right and duty of the State to provide the highest educational advantages, but another speaker opposed all education by the State.—Mrs. JOHN OGDEN, whose husband is connected with the Ohio Central Normal School, has opened a training class for "Kindergarteners," in connection with her Kindergarten at Columbus. Applications received until Feb. 1. We hope Wisconsin will send an applicant for the training. Openings would be found for Kindergartens, we think, in several of our cities.

BOOK NOTICES, ETC.

THE REPUBLIC, a monthly magazine published at Washington, and "devoted to the dissemination of political information, contains in the January number an article by Senator HOWE, entitled "Some remarks on the Report of President ELIOT upon a National University." In this article our Senator, with his characteristic force and directness, endeavors to show the falsity of President ELIOT'S premises and arguments, and to give reasons for the establishment and maintenance by the general government of a National University.

We will simply say that whatever difference of opinion there may be respecting the force of the Senator's reasoning, no one can deny that the paper is very sprightly and interesting reading. We hope to give our readers ere long some extracts from it, and expect also to take an early opportunity to give a little editorial talk on this now much abused and much defended question of a great Government University.

COMMON SCHOOL MANUAL, for Rhode Island. Providence Press Co., Printers to the State.

This book, by resolution of the Legislature, was prepared by a committee, consisting of Hon. Elisha R. Potter, Associate Justice of the Supreme Court, the Commissioner of Public Schools, and the Secretary of State. It contains the Constitution of the State, so far as relates to education, and the school laws, with decisions, remarks and forms. It is altogether an admirable volume, for the use of school officers for whose benefit it is designed.

THE NURSERY continues to delight the children as usual. It enters upon its fifteenth volume with the January number. Not only in the house but in the schoolroom it must prove a welcome visitor, and would make a capital new "reader" every month, for the younglings. $1.50 a year. Address John L. Shorey, 36 Bromfield St., Boston.

THE TEACHER'S COMPANION to the American Drawing-Slates and Cards. By WALTER SMITH, Director of Art Education in Massachusetts. Boston: Noyes, Holmes & Co.

It is known to our readers that Massachusetts, generally first in good works, has taken a step forward in elementary education, by providing for instruction in free-hand drawing in the common schools. Mr. Smith, whose skill had been tested in England, is employed by the State as General Director, and has special supervision in Boston. In the absence of personal instruction, from competent teachers, his little manual will enable any teacher, and especially any one who has a little taste and skill in this direction, to give instruction in drawing, especially if the drawing cards and slates are obtained. This is an eminently practical matter, worthy of immediate and general attention.

METHOD OF INSTRUCTION for Curtis' Number Lattice and Numeral Frame. By E. T. CURTIS.

This pamphlet explains the use of the Lattice or frame which Mr. Curtis exhibited at the time of the Educational gathering in this city last month, and a specimen of which he left in the office of the State Superintendent. The apparatus is very ingenious and if sufficiently durable must be desirable. Address E. T. Curtis, Calumet, L. S., Michigan.

SCHOOL SUPPLY AGENCY.—We take pleasure in calling attention to the advertisement of Mr. John H. Rolfe. The Gazetteer and *Biographical Dictionary* which he supplies, among other things, are especially valuable.

HOBART'S HELPS TO SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.—This system has been tried with good success, and is now published by Hadley Bros. & Kane, 136 State St., Chicago. The chromos and other embellishments are got up in good taste, and must be very attractive.